DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 380 365 SO 024 550

AUTHOR	Broclawik, Krzysztof; And Others
TITLE	The School in Democratic Society: A Course Plan for Poland's Future Teachers.
INSTITUTION	Ohio State Univ., Columbus. Mershon Center.
PUB DATE	94
NOTE	189p.; Edited in Polish and translated to English by Barbara Malak-Minkiewicz. Edited in English by Gregory E. Hamot.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Course Content; *Curriculum Development; Curriculum Guides; Education Courses; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Instructional Materials; *Methods Courses; Preservice Teacher Education; *Teacher Education Programs
IDENTIFIERS	*Poland

ABSTRACT

This document details the development and implementation of a course for teacher education in Poland. The course, "The School in Democratic Society," was prepared between September 1992 and December 1993 as a cooperative effort between the Polish Ministry of National Education and the Citizenship Development for a Global Age Program of the Mershon Center at The Ohio State University. First, a definition is given of the main aspects of the school's operation in a democratic society and their relevance to Poland's present and future needs. Additionally, some new teaching methods were explored and subsequently implemented in Poland. The course covered: (1) "Role and Position of the Teacher"; (2) "Student Rights and Responsibilities"; (3) "Parental Participation in Schools"; (4) "Schools and the Local Community"; (5) "The Distribution of Resources for Education"; (6) "Schools as an Organization and as a Community"; and (7) "The Role of Schools in a Democratic Society." Lesson plans, practical suggestions for teaching, and auxiliary materials are included. (EH)

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The School in Democratic Society:
A Course Plan for Poland's Future Teachers

by

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Citizenship Development for a Global Age Program

A Note to Readers of English

This document is the English translation of a two-volume course plan developed for use in Poland. It represents new ground in Polish teacher education -- a course designed to highlight the role of school in a democratic society. To our knowledge, it is the first of its kind in post-communist Central and Eastern Europe. With this in mind, we would like to congratulate the five Polish social scientists who developed this breakthrough toward realizing the democratic ideal in post-communist teacher education.

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May, 1994

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INTRODUCTION

A course entitled "The School in Democratic Society" was prepared between September, 1992 and December, 1993 as the result of a cooperative effort between **The Polish Ministry of National Education** and **The Citizenship Development for a Global Age Program of the Mershon Center at The Ohio State University.** The Mershon Center is an interdisciplinary organization that is recognized internationally for its work in curriculum design, developing instructional materials, and teacher education. The project was funded partially by the **PEW Charitable Trusts** of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

The authors of the syllabus (one political scientist, one sociologist, one educational psychologist, and two social psychologists), with consultation from American specialists in education, spent four months (September - December, 1992) at the Mershon Center of the Ohio State University working on the first draft of the Syllabus. The primary specialists were **Dr. Luvern L. Cunningham**, Professor Emeritus of Education and former Dean of the College of Education at the Ohio State University, and **Dr. Richard C. Remy**, Professor of Education, Associate Director of the Mershon Center, and Project Co-Director.

This first stage of work was devoted to defining the main aspects of the school's operation in a democratic society and their relevance to Poland's present and future needs. Additionally, some new teaching methods were explored. The second phase took place in Poland, where detailed suggestions for the content of the course and teaching methods and procedures were developed.

RATIONALE

1. Basic Assumptions

When looking back on more than forty years of communism in Poland, one can find many reasons to be dissatisfied with schooling in our country. Teachers were probably in a position to be disappointed most. On the level of doctrine, they were recognized as an important pillar for the "new type" of society -- responsible for forming and enlightening the young generation. In practice, however, Communist leaders were inclined to specify harshly the practice of teachers by enforcing strict subordination to bureaucrats and politicians. As a consequence, many within Polish society perceived them as more or less voluntary agents of indoctrination.

Parents were concerned whether or not their children obeyed teachers' demands enough to avoid trouble, and they were hostile toward the politically imposed authority of the school. They could hardly influence the formal education of their children. The majority limited themselves to indirect control over schooling by correcting the child's knowledge when it didn't fit the family's standards and values.

Often, students did not like school and its authoritarian atmosphere. There was no sort of authentic bond between the school and the community, nor could the community influence schooling in any respect.

Therefore, it is now an object of consensus that this unsatisfactory condition of Polish schooling must change; Polish schools have to be democratized. Yet, this necessity for change has a deeper justification: a need to educate the young generation for life in a free and democratic society.

Democracy as a political system is unstable as long as it is exclusively a political system and not a type of society. Modern democracy is more than a form of government. Democracy is a mode of associated living. It assumes freedom, justice, and equality for everyone. It asks for participation and responsibility from everyone. In a democracy, nothing is decided in finality. It is a process of continuous change. No static "final product" of this process can be identified. The "democratic ideal" fulfills itself in the ways individuals and groups act and interact with each other. Thus, the democratic ideal implies that "education for democracy" should be based on democratic experiences. It requires school to become a democratic environment in the sense of both a democratic climate and democratic means.

The postulate for school democratization is often questioned from the point of view of the nature of the school itself. School is organized in a hierarchic way, and the teacher's role is defined through the concept of authority. If these principles were rejected, the execution of the school's fundamental functions would be inhibited considerably. However, what can and should be rejected for the sake of the educational process are blind discipline, coercion, arbitrary rules, and disregard for the students' dignity. In essence, democracy in the school means nothing more (and nothing less) than a lack of tyranny, well established and clear regulations, justice, sensitivity toward and respect for students' rights, and teacher authority based on professional mastery. Also, it should be stressed that schooling does not mean classes exclusively. There are other domains of activity (e.g., students and teachers' self-governments) that should be organized on the basis of authentic democratic rules and procedures.

Release from communism does not democratize schools automatically. Moreover, many obstacles have emerged that are related to the transitory character of the present. Political instability disrupts necessary legi[illegible]ive changes and results in a "revolving door" of educational [illegible]ship. Economic crises limit some recognized possibilities for school reform and make the already difficult financial situation of teachers and many students more difficult.

There are barriers created by the lack of democratic experiences as well. Very often, the main agents of formal education do not know precisely **what** they can do and **how** to initiate democratic changes. They have problems with expressing mutual expectations, with compromising, and with reaching agreement on issues of school and education. They do not know patterns of behavior that honor democratic values and procedures. As an effect of such a situation, the slogan "democratization of the school" leads frequently to superficial rather than authentic activity. Old structures and habits remain untouched.

The purpose of this course is to empower prospective teachers to take on the challenges of change toward democracy in the Polish school system. Undoubtedly, since democratic values prevent "autocratic temptation," only the teacher who is committed to democratic values can contribute to the democratization of the school. Such values are responsible for an inclination toward democratic solutions and actions, even if they are difficult, complicated, and time consuming. The course we propose is linked to this type of values. If it will give preservice teachers the possibility to recognize the utility of democratic skills and procedures for school life, they will be able to improve and develop further these skills and procedures throughout their teaching careers.

To achieve the intention of this course, preservice teachers should have the opportunity to realize two overarching goals. **First, they should be offered the opportunities to gain cognitive insight into the actuality and potential of Polish schools in the context of democracy.** Therefore, not only do they have to investigate the present situation of education in Poland, the character and consequences of reforms, the barriers for them to hurdle, and other pertinent aspects of the present situation, but also possibilities for development based on the Polish experience, the practice of other countries, and democratic values and principles.

Simultaneously, participants in the course should be provided with the opportunity to practice basic competencies associated with citizenship in a democracy and necessary for teachers in a democratic society. These competencies are communicating, making judgments, and making decisions. The task of learning competencies requires not only acting, but also understanding the behavior of oneself and others while applying democratic standards.

2. Goals of the Course

Goals associated with the specific knowledge and skills needed to achieve the overarching purpose of the course comprise a "road map" for content, process, and evaluation.

I. Knowledge Goals. Specifically, this course should help students to:

a. recognize the rights, responsibilities, and role of the teacher in a democratic society;

b. understand the different types of rights and responsibilities possessed by children in their role as students;

c. appreciate the rights and responsibilities of parents in the education of their children and with regard to the school;

d. consider the relationship between schools and their local community within a democratic framework;

e. explore the meaning of democracy for the funding of public and private schools;

f. explore the meaning of democracy for the organization and operation of school as a community; and

g. inquire into the role and purpose of schools in a democratic society.

II. Skill Goals. Specifically, this course should help students to:

a. exercise effective communication with other actors on the "school scene" (e.g., pupils, parents, principals, teachers);

b. practice making judgments on the basis of democratic values; and

c. experience making decisions anchored in democratic standards and principles.

To accomplish these goals, the topics of the course are organized around the analysis of seven features of the educational system:

1. The Role and Position of the Teacher;
2. Student Rights and Responsibilities;
3. Parental Participation in Schools;
4. School and the Local Community;
5. The Distribution of Resources for Education;
6. School as an Organization and as a Community; and
7. The Role of School in Democratic Society.

There were two criteria for selecting these topics. First, it was thought that the topics should be related directly to different aspects of the organization and operation of schools. The examination of a "democratic alternative" for schools requires as direct an application of values and procedures as possible and cannot be replaced with learning about democracy "as such." The second criterion resulted from the main domains of Polish school system reform. In these domains, prospective teachers will be able to exercise democratic standards and procedures if they desire to do so.

3. Basic Competencies, Methods, and Procedures

To practice democracy is a difficult task. Democratic procedures are complex. They demand effective information processing and problem solving. They require the ability to communicate effectively. Often, the arrangements obtained through democratic procedures seem imperfect and unsatisfactory when taking into account the amount of needed effort. Answering "what" and "how" should students be taught to become motivated and qualified for practicing democratic patterns of behavior is not a simple task.

While considering possible teaching strategies for this course, the authors adopted two assumptions. First, the methods of teaching must not be contradictory to the content of the course. It is difficult to imagine that one can comprehend patterns of democratic behavior under pressure and coercion. In addition, since the course is value laden, students should feel free to analyze problems through different perspectives, including personal values and standards. Second, it is futile to teach democratic procedures and styles of behavior without the integration and analysis of practical experiences. It is naive to suppose that rhetorical theories about the nature of democracy are sufficient for the development of democratic competencies that will lead eventually to democratic behavior.

"Teaching democracy" should be understood, therefore, as a provision of opportunity for self-education during which students can (a) develop and organize their personal experience, (b) acquire specific competencies, and (c) gain knowledge about the possible implementation of democratic procedures in future professional activities.

The emphasis placed on the development of these competencies has deep-seated reasons. Democracy is a dynamic process, and, thus, a democratic society is process-oriented. Various phenomena, institutions, and states of affairs change in such societies much faster than in other societies. Accordingly, it is more reasonable to help students learn the means to professional behavior in the future than to provide them with static prescriptions of behavior.

However, a key question arises: Is it at all possible to define the necessary competencies? A fruitful effort to specify such competencies was undertaken by Remy and Turner (1979). They defined seven democratic competencies. According to their design, these competencies regulate generally the activity within a democratic social system. Yet, they can be applied to a specific sub-system such as education. An explication of the seven competencies aids in clarifying this point.

1. *Gaining and using information*: To possess information is a necessary condition for managing any circumstances. The professional environment is not an exception to this rule. General competencies for gaining information that students can develop when practicing many specific competencies include:

   A. the use of the media as a source of information;

   B. the use of printed and graphic materials (schemes, graphs, etc.);

   C. the gathering of information from institutional sources and from groups;

   D. the collection of information from individuals;

   E. the evaluation of the validity and reliability of information; and

   F. the organization and utilization of processed information.

2. *Decision making*: Without doubt, this is one of the most important and universal social competencies. It includes proficiency in:

   A. defining goals and values crucial for making a decision in a given situation,

   B. defining alternative options and producing alternative resolutions,

   C. recognizing the consequences of the alternatives for oneself and others, and

   D. considering the consequences of the alternatives for goals and values.

3. *Making evaluations and judgments*: This competence determines the necessary conditions for autonomy in social, institutional, and political environments. It demands students to develop skills for:

   A. defining criteria for assessments and judgements,

   B. applying such criteria to identified events,

   C. periodically updating the criteria of assessment, and

   D. recognizing the multiplicity of the criteria that can be applied to a given problem.

4. *Communication*: Communication is an instrument without which any other competencies could not be used. In the context of the course, the subjects of interest are advanced forms of communication. Namely, they include:

   A. the presentation of ones own opinions in interpersonal relations;

   B. the presentation of information addressed to other people or institutions, or assigned for publication in written form;

   C. the public presentation of opinions and standpoints; and

   D. the development of reasoned arguments for one's point of view.

5. *Cooperation*: This competence plays an important role that is similar to that of communication. One may not be able to do a lot in any environment by oneself. Therefore, students should have an opportunity to develop the following competencies:

   A. to take different roles in a group setting;

   B. to manage the differentiation of opinions in a group;

   C. to tolerate diversity;

   D. to ground interactions with others on democratic principles; and

   E. to cooperate with people who represent different opinions, religions, and ideologies.

6. *Estimation of the need and possibility to engage*: One of the most important values connected to democratic procedures is the freedom to decide on directions and levels of engagement in a given situation or in a specific social context. For effective engagement, students should be able to:

   A. define their rights and responsibilities in a given situation;

   B. recognize the broad and far-reaching consequences of the engagement; and

   C. understand mechanisms that are responsible for the consequences of actions and judgments.

7. *Striving after one's interests*: Democracy demands resourcefulness in the promotion of personal interests on both the social and institutional levels, as in the case of school and the educational system generally. The

basic competencies that students have to learn are the ability to:

A. identify personal goals and interests;

B. formulate the proper strategies of behavior for a given situation;

C. organize support groups;

D. operationalize legal avenues for promoting their interests; and

E. use revocatory procedures when dealing with organizations and bureaucratic institutions.

These competencies are complex. However, they are based on the simple, unspecific skills necessary for any complex forms of learning. They are primarily analytic skills and the capacity to solve problems. The analytic skills are fundamental for handling information. Not only do they determine one's problem solving abilities, but also they are essential for problem formulation. The analytic skills provide a base for the creation of both simple and complex models of the real world. More advanced forms of analysis consist of the application of some analytical strategies, such as analysis in compliance with a specific theory. Recognizing the essence of the task is undoubtedly dependent on analytical skills.

For problem solving, the most important phenomenon is insight. Two other aspects of problem solving deserve mention: (a) the exploitation of specific techniques and procedures and (b) the formation of the habits and attitudes that promote creativity and innovation.

The development of the two above-mentioned basic competencies can be promoted by inquiry-oriented methods of teaching. These methods are recommended to be used in this course. Inquiry-oriented teaching demands that the teacher create conditions that stimulate students to investigate issues and problems, support their skepticism about any "best" answer, and motivate them to be persistent in testing hypotheses and ideas.

The condition necessary to make inquiry possible is the formulation of problems that allows students to relate these problems to the real world and their personal experiences. For this reason, we recommend the use of case studies, simulations, and role playing as techniques for teaching this course. All of them can be characterized by their connection to reality and practicality. Also, these methods employ a qualitative rather than quantitative approach. If a side effect of the course will be an appreciation of these methods by preservice teachers, this effect can be considered an additional benefit.

Success with these recommended methods demands a specific climate that is characterized by confidence, openness, and freedom of thought in the completion of tasks. To create such a climate, instructors must be prepared for many different roles -- academic lecturer, guide, discussion partner, and/or the *advocatus diaboli* who helps discover new and difficult aspects of the problem. Students should be informed clearly about the criteria for evaluating their performance. The subject of formal evaluation should be knowledge and activity in pursuit of the problems. Under all circumstances, students' values and attitudes should not be assessed, even if they are contradictory to the instructor's beliefs and judgments.

In recognizing that competencies are a desirable product of the course, we had two things in mind. The first was a sense of realism in approach. It is not possible to create the "ideal teacher." Instead, it is possible to equip a person with useful competencies for individual development into such a role. Second, preservice teachers should be able to develop a sense of optimism toward their future professional settings. The encounter of personal, idealistic dreams about teaching with the reality of the situation can be discouraging indeed. Thus, if prospective teachers will be equipped with some means to deal with difficult problems, it may be easier for them to believe that the shape of the school depends also on the activity of the teachers.

This course is an open offer. It should be implemented only if people involved directly in teacher education accept it. We do not suggest, as a prescription, a required order based upon the way in which the topics are presented in the course plan. The range of the topics can be adjusted to the instructor's and students' interests. Also, it may be advantageous to change the readings, especially if new and interesting materials are published. Since we do not offer a full course of lesson scenarios, but only some examples, new and innovative methods of teaching are encouraged.

There are no specific professional requirements for the background of the instructor who wishes to operationalize this course. It can be taught by educators, psychologists, sociologists, historians, and political scientists. What we suppose, however, is that these experts will use their professional competencies, as they deem appropriate, to develop further the program of the course.

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The following is a selection of works used in the preparation of the rationale.

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R.C. Remy, M.J. Turner, *Basic Citizenship Competencies. Guidelines for Educators, Policymakers and Citizens*, "Quarterly Report" no. 1, vol 5, Mershon Center, The Ohio State University, 1979.

Szkoła polska po sierpniu 1980. Uwagi i propozycje [Polish School after August, 1980. Comments and Proposals], Konwersatorium 'Doświadczenie i Przyszłość' - Sekcja d/s Oświaty i Nauki [Discussion Group "Experience and Future" - Section for Education and Science], Warszawa, 1981.

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[1] Throughout the Course Plan and Auxiliary Materials, we have translated titles of works in Polish that may help to inform the English reader on the types of readings involved in the course.

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F. Znaniecki, *Socjologia wychowania* [Sociology of Education]
Warszawa, 1973.

Suggested Number of Class Hours per Topic

(This course is designed to cover sixty class hours)

(minimum/maximum)

Topic I: The Role and Position of the Teacher	(14/20)
Topic II: Student Rights and Responsibilities	(8/10)
Topic III: Parental Participation in Schools	(4/6)
Topic IV: School and the Local Community	(6/8)
Topic V: The Distribution of Resources for Education	(2/4)
Topic VI: School as an Organization and as a Community	(10/14)
Topic VII: The Role of School in Democratic Society	(6)[2]

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[2] The number of class hours for this topic will depend on the instructo'rs discretion in determining the class hours necessary for the other six topics.

TOPIC I: THE ROLE AND POSITION OF THE TEACHER

1. Definition of the Topic

Society has many expectations for teachers. They are obligated to prepare their students for a mature life that is framed by perpetual social, political, cultural, and technological change. These changes form the daily reality of the average person. Accordingly, students are supposed to become flexible and open minded thinkers. They are supposed to understand and accept the diverse attitudes of others. Also, they are expected to be willing to deal with problems and conflicts that are present in today's world. In other words, the teacher's task is not only to help students gain specific knowledge. Also, they have to prepare their students for life in a modern, democratic society.

However, Polish teachers work under conditions that make their tasks extremely difficult. They are underpaid and work in school buildings that are in bad repair and are poorly equipped. Beyond these material conditions exist a very important and often underestimated source of obstacles for the teacher who is dedicated to a new paradigm of education. Some of these obstacles are represented by segments within the society that take an autocratic approach toward the child that has its roots in hostility and intolerance for anything new, different, or uncommon.

The goal for this part of the syllabus focuses on preparing future teachers to become sensitive to the aforementioned social realities as they impact on the school environment. We are concerned with the process that will enable the teacher to monitor this environment and understand its nature. We would like teachers to be able to improve their selection of strategies for achieving these aims.

We would like to start by analyzing the teacher's role as it relates to her/his pedagogical beliefs. Next, it is important that the teacher recognize and be prepared to resolve problems that she/he faces when interacting with different groups, such as students, parents, and colleagues. We would like teachers to practice such interactions in a democratic fashion.

Therefore, the main task of this topic is to provide prospective teachers with an opportunity to exercise competencies that are needed when taking judgmental responsibility for decisions leading to conflict resolution and reduction of prejudice in the school environment. We are not able to offer them a "magic potion" to deal with problems. However, we can make the preservice teacher aware of some possibly useful procedures when confronting and attempting to solve these problems.

2. Key Issues

1. What is the role of the teacher?
   a. What makes teachers perceive their role as being different from other professions?

   b. What is specific about the teacher who played a special role in a student's life?

   c. What factors determine the "teacher's mind?"

   d. Why do students decide to become teachers?

   e. What do preservice teachers like and not like about the prevailing image of the teacher?

   f. What benefits and costs are connected with democratic and non-democratic styles of teaching?

   g. What are the consequences of the teacher's methods of resolving conflict (win-lose vs. win-win)?

2. What is the professional status of the teacher?

   a. Why is teaching popularly termed an "ungrateful profession?"

   b. Do teachers have more or less the same rights in comparison to other professional groups?

   c. What are the limits to or methods used in fighting for teacher rights?

3. What is the relationship between teachers and parents?

   a. Should there be any limits to parental influence on the school? In the private school? In the public school?

   b. Can teachers alter the patterns of parental participation in schooling (from "client" to "partner")?

   c. What are the reasons for the differences between teachers' and parents' visions of the goal of schooling?

   d. What are the most effective strategies for nurturing relations with parents of a "difficult student?"

   e. What heuristic for teacher-parent meetings is better than others?

   f. How can teachers engage parents in developing bonds between the school and the community?

4. What are the relationships between teaching colleagues?
    a. Can the "good" of the classroom be in conflict with the "good" of the school?
    b. What promotes effective communication between teachers?
    c. What are the relations between "new" and experienced teachers?
    d. What can teachers demand from their principal?
5. What can be problematic in teacher-student relationships?
    a. Is a partnership with students in the classroom possible? If not, why not? If so, why and how?
    b. Should teachers discuss controversial issues with students (e.g., ethical and political issues)?
    c. Can the teacher admit her/his failure in a conflict with a student?
    d. Should teachers always be the "last resort" in a student-student conflict?
    e. How should teachers deal with conflicts surrounding "different" children in her/his class?

3. Student Objectives

I. Knowledge Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. recognize the various roles of the teacher (especially the differences between autocratic and non-autocratic teachers);

b. understand what determines the preferences for particular roles;

c. know the consequences of a particular role (especially in teacher-student relations);

d. realize what determines the teacher's position in the society;

e. understand what determines the teachers', parents', and students' attitudes toward school;

f. understand what conflict means in every day school life and know the benefits of constructive conflict resolution; and

g. know the teacher's rights and responsibilities.

II. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. debate the consequences of the non-democratic and democratic style of teaching;

b. collect and organize data on the status of the teacher in society;

c. discuss the pros and cons of the right of teachers to strike;

d. exercise critical thinking and problem-solving skills in dealing with typical school conflicts;

e. practice effective communication styles with teachers, parents, and students;

f. examine their own opinions and beliefs with respect to school affairs;

g. exercise their ability to facilitate and mediate discussion about controversial issues; and

h. exercise the ability to lead meetings with parents and colleagues.

4. Background Information on the Topic

A. General Suggestions

Specifically, this topic can assume a key position in the course. The way in which students will understand and specify the teacher's role can influence directly their motivation to undertake this role after completing their education. For this reason, we recommend the extensive use of inquiry methods in teaching this topic. The point is that prospective teachers should determine some examples of problems they may face in their professional work. In addition, they should understand their personal style in coping with problems, personal "weaknesses", and especially their strengths, which they can rely upon and develop further.

Despite the seemingly large number of class hours dedicated to this topic (14 - 20 hours), it demands a careful structuring of class organization. Each lesson should be planned carefully. For instance, if a simulation is planned, its scenario must be prepared in advance. In addition, each lesson should unfold dynamically, including a proper distribution of the time for different activities, a good tempo, and timely breaks in the activity. It is also worthy to alternate practical and academic activities. The interspersion of lectures and reports by students with active learning strategies can aid in this effort. It is very important for the instructor and students to establish interpersonal rules of behavior (e.g., listening to others and discussing opinions and not personalities).

Striving for the development of the preservice teacher's professional identity implies engagement on both the intellectual and the emotional level. Therefore, it is very important that the students understand well the "philosophy" and nature of the didactic methods implemented in the course. In lieu of this notion, we recommend that the program of the course, especially its methods, be presented to the students in full. It is also worthwhile to discuss these methods and evaluate them throughout the course.

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

With 14 class hours (10.5 clock hours) allotted for this topic, we propose, as one of many possibilities, organizing it into five units.

Unit One

The Role of the Teacher

(1.5 clock hours)

Problems inherent in choosing teaching as a profession and of the social stereotypes of teachers can be addressed in small group discussions (four or five students). Each group should have a leader who will present the outcomes of the discussion to the rest of the class. Small group discussions should be organized around questions prepared in advance. The following questions may assist in motivating the discussions:

> "Why do I want to be a teacher? Why would I not want to be a teacher?"

> "What do I like about common views toward teachers? What do I not like?"

Next, a discussion should center upon the exemplary characteristics of teachers who were significant persons in the lives of the students. Since this part of the discussion concerns personal recollections that may require some intimacy, discussion can take place through a "Think, Pair, Share" exercise. The task is to find answers for the following questions:

> "Did any of my school teachers become a significant person to me?"

> "What was special about him/her (in the sense of personality traits and behavior)?"

Using the "Think, Pair, Share" method, students should decide by themselves those memories they want to share with other group members. They then share them with one other member of the group, and, together, the pair presents their collective thoughts on the aforementioned questions.

Both segments of this discussion activity should last no longer than 30 minutes. The salient points of each group can be written down on the blackboard or posters so that they can be seen during the lesson by the instructor and students from the other groups.

The rest of the time can be designated for discussion of the assigned readings. The question "Who is a teacher?" should be stressed. Discussion should include the specifics of a teacher's job, the ethos of the teaching profession, the common concepts of the "ideal teacher", and the necessary psychological "equipment" of the teacher. The instructor should introduce this discussion by formulating the subject in such a way that students will not limit the discussion to the readings.

The discussion on "Who is a teacher?" can be specified by contradictions: profession vs. vocation; official (institutional representative) vs. "missionary" (values exponent); expert vs. educator-guide (supports student's development); "general" vs. "master"; or trainer vs. "Socrates."

Students may be able to grasp the extent to which they are influenced by the hidden cultural messages about the teacher's role through an evaluation of the eight popular myths of the so-called "good teacher" that are noted in *Training of the Effectiveness of the Teacher* (see "5. Student Readings").

Other potential topics for discussion can emerge from short papers prepared and presented by the students (approximately 10 minutes). These topics can include "The hidden curriculum of the teacher" (based on the chapter by H. Rylke in "5. Student Readings"), or "How did Socrates try to educate young Athenians for democracy?" (see T. Pluzanski in "5. Student Readings"). Aside from these presentations, students may prepare reviews of some of the readings (e.g., J. Gesicki, *How Can One Keep from Going Crazy in School?* - see "5. Student Readings").

Unit 2

The Teacher in Society

(1.5 clock hours)

This unit is designed for studying social phenomena that influence the social position of the teacher and the prestige of this profession. Also, students should consider the problem of improving the status of the teacher within society.

The introductory step for this unit is to collect the students' opinions on the position of a teacher within Polish society. Opinions may be gathered by asking the following questions: What is the prestige of teachers when compared to other professionals? What factors are responsible for this common opinion?

Student tasks may include the preparation of an inventory of professional attributes that are perceived commonly as unappealing aspects of being a teacher. Then, they can falsify those attributes according to their personal knowledge and beliefs.

The results of this activity should be related to the research data on the **prestige** and **income** of different professional groups. Since the teacher's position on these two scales is dissimilar (high on the prestige scale and low on the income scale), students should inquire about the existing differences and investigate the basis for high prestige in factors of a non-economic origin. Also, they should explore any possible reasons for a teacher's status that may be determined by the type of school, its social surroundings, and historical context.

The next question for discussion concerns those characteristics of the profession that are responsible for the level of "power" that is ascribed to teachers in contrast to other professions. This discussion should be preceded (or supplemented) with a practical activity. For example, the simulation of a discussion among teachers about their participation in a strike could serve as a motivator for the analysis of teachers as a group force within society. Students should realize some important specifics of the profession that are related to this issue: teacher distribution (there is usually no more than a dozen or so teachers in one school), their strong subordination to authorities, the very common questioning of their professional competencies (especially in the case of preschool and elementary teachers), and certain limits for participation in a strike.

This unit could conclude with the development of some possible strategies for improving the position of teachers in society. Both "top - down" actions (e.g., those provided by the Ministry of Education and the Superintendent's Office for protection from unjustified accusations coming from public opinion and mass media) and "bottom - up" actions (e.g., the development of bonds within the profession, professional influence on local authorities, and the development of a teachers lobby) should be taken into consideration.

While teaching this unit, it may be profitable to use materials drawn from current press publications on teacher affairs. Any of the numerous articles on the "Teachers Charter" can serve this purpose.

Unit 3

Making Group Decisions in the School:
"Funds for Education are Increased" - A Simulation
(3 clock hours)

and

Unit 4

Conflict Resolution in School:
"The Pregnant Student" - A Psychodrama
(3 clock hours)

Scenarios for both units are presented in *Auxiliary Materials.* We assume that participation in these sessions will provide students with an opportunity to: (a) increase their self-consciousness with regard to their feelings, attitudes, and beliefs on important school problems; (b) understand the relationship between personal behavior and the behavior of others who participate in the event; (c) consider the necessity of learning new skills, such as consensus building, mediating between actors on the school stage (principal, parents, superintendent, students, and other teachers), and constructive behavior in conflict situations. Debriefing should help further discussion on problems concerning the relationship between teachers and students, parents, colleagues, and authorities.

Unit 5

Summary

(1.5 clock hours)

Two issues should be discussed during the summation of this unit. These issues are: (1) the content of the topic, and (2) the methods that have been used to convey the topic. For the first task, we propose small group discussion on possible steps that can be taken for the professional development of the teacher. It is reasonable to draw student attention to the institutions, organizations, and foundations that can be helpful in this respect. We also propose assigning a short, summative essay on the topic (see "C. Evaluation of Student Performance").

The discussion about the structure of the topic and the methods and procedures used in teaching the unit can stem from an evaluation done by students and based on adjectival scales (e.g., interesting - boring, exciting - tiresome, simple - difficult). Student opinions about problems they think are important but overlooked during the unit should be collected as well. The advantages and disadvantages of the practical methods and their applicability to the problems addressed by the topic can also be discussed.

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

We propose that student assessment for this unit include the following elements:

1. participation in and contribution to discussions (including familiarity with and mastery of the assigned readings); and

2. an essay on a problem chosen by the student. The following are some examples: "What kind of teacher would I like (not like) to be?"; "What does it mean to me to be a teacher?"; or "The portrait of the Polish teacher." The theme of the essay can be phrased by the student. It is useful, however, to discuss the problem or issue with the student before they begin writing so as to be sure that it is not formulated too broadly or too specifically.

5. Readings for Students

J. Gęsicki, *Jak nie zwariować w szkole? (Niepedagogiczny poradnik dla nauczycieli i uczniów)* [How One Can Keep From Going Crazy in School (An Unorthodox Guide for Teachers and Students)], Interium S.C., Warszawa, 1992:
- part I, *Jak mimo wszystko być nauczycielem?* [How Can One Be A Teacher In Spite of It All?], p. 6-43.

A. Janowski, *Uczeń w teatrze życia codziennego szkoły* [Student in the Theater of School], WSiP, Warszawa, 1989:
- chapter 4.

Th. Gordon, *Wychowanie bez porażek* [Education Without Failure], Instytut Wydawniczy PAX, Warszawa, 1991:
- chapter 16, *Inni rodzice waszych dzieci* [Other Parents of Your Children], p. 285.

K. Konarzewski (ed.), *Sztuka nauczania. Szkoła* [The Art of Teaching. School], PWN, Warszawa, 1991:
- chapter 4.

W. Kozłowski, *Sztuka negocjowania* [The Art of Negotiation], Fundacja edukacji dla demokracji, Warszawa, 1990.

E. Nasalska, M. Stasińska, *Systemowe uwarunkowania funkcjonowania zawodowego nauczycieli w Polsce* [Systemic Conditions for the Professional Functioning of Teachers in Poland], Wyd. UW, Warszawa, 1990, p. 67-137.

J. Radziewicz (ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa 1993:
- J. Bińczycka, *Pedagogiczny sens dialogu i spotkania* [Pedagogical Sense of Dialogue and Encounter], p. 57-64,
- J. Gęsicki, *Klimat wychowawczy w szkole. Doświadczenia, szanse, zagrożenia* [Educational Climate in School. Experiences, Chances, and Threats], p. 39-44,
- H. Kwiatkowska, *Proces demokratyzacji szkoły - możliwości i ograniczenia* [The Process of Democratizing School - Possibilities and Limits], p. 28-33.

- T. Płużański, *Sokratejski styl wychowania* [Socratic Style of Education], p. 86-91.

J. Radziewicz, *Wychowawca i jego klasa. Książka dla młodych nauczycieli* [The Teacher Advisor and His Class. A Book for Young Teachers], WSiP, Warszawa, 1986.

A. Radziwiłł, *O szkole, wychowaniu i polityce* [About School, Education, and Politics], WSiP, Warszawa, 1993:

- part: *Szkoła* [School], p. 11-24 (zagadnienia szczegółowe: - nasza szkoła, - nadzór pedagogiczny, - nauczyciel, - dyrektor, - wychowawca, - klasa-zespół [specific issues: - our school, - pedagogical supervision, -teacher, - principal, - teacher advisor, - class/team]),
  - part: *Znaki czasu* [Sign of the Times], p. 38-49 (zagadnienia szczegółowe: - o niezależności i odpowiedzialności, - o umiejętności dokonywania wyboru, - o kompromisie i pryncypiach, - o prawie do buntu, - o wolności słowa, obyczajów i języka [specific issues: - on independence and responsibility, - on competence to make a choice, - on compromise and principles, - on the right to rebel, - on freedom of speech, custom, and language).

H. Rylke, *W zgodzie z sobą i uczniem. Z doświadczeń nauczycieli i psychologów* [At Peace with Oneself and One's Student. From Experiences of Teachers and Psychologists], WSiP, Warszawa, 1993:

- Chapter 1, *Szkoła jako miejsce wspomagania rozwoju* [School as a Place to Support Development], pkt 2, *Szkoła jako środowisko wychowawcze* [pt. 2: School as an educational environment], p. 11-19,
- Chapter 2, *Problemy uczniów i nauczycieli na drodze rozwoju* [Problems of Students and Teacher on Their Road to Development], pkt 2, *Problemy i sukcesy nauczycieli* [pt. 2: Problems and successes of teachers], p. 31-51,
- Chapter. 4, *Pomaganie sobie w rozwoju* [Helping Each Other in Development], pkt 1, *Wgląd we własne relacje z uczniami* [pt.1: inside one's relations with students], p. 69-71, pkt 2, *Określenie własnej roli i granic odpowiedzialności* [pt. 2: defining one's personal role and limits for responsibility], p. 71-77, pkt 3, *Weryfikacja stylu pracy i uczenie się nowych umiejętności* [pt. 3: verification of working style and comprehension of new competencies], p. 77-78.

Szkolnictwo 1990/1991 [Education 1990/1991], Roczniki Statystyczne [Governmental Statistical Data], GUS, Warszawa.

Trening efektywności pracy nauczyciela [Training Effective Teacher Performance], Prezentacje MOP PTP, 'Zeszyty Problemowo-Metodyczne' nr 2, 1987:

- pkt 1, *Stosunek nauczyciel-uczeń. Brak więzi* [Relations between teacher and student. Luck of bonds], p. 2-6 (Co ma decydujące znaczenie w konataktach między nauczycielem a uczniem?, Jak rozwiązać problem dyscypliny? [What is decisive for teacher/student relations? How can one solve the problem of discipline?]),
- pkt 2, *Model właściwego układu między nauczycielem a uczniem* [Model of proper relations between the teacher and student], s. 6-8 (mity, oczekiwania, pełnione role [myths, expectations, performed roles)],
- pkt 5, *Konflikt w klasie* [Conflict in the classroom], p. 35-46 (autorytet w klasie [authority in the classroom]),
- pkt 6, *Metoda przezwyciężania konfliktów bez zwycięzców i pokonanych* [The method of dealing with conflicts without winners and losers], p. 46-54,
- pkt 7, *Konflikt wartości* [conflict of values], p. 54-57.

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

D. Barnes, *Nauczyciel i uczniowie. Od porozumiewania się do kształcenia* [Teacher and Students. From Communication to Education], WSiP, Warszawa 1988.

H. Domański, Z. Sawiński, *Wzory prestiżu a struktura społeczna* [Patterns of Presige and Social Structure], Zakład Narodowy Ossolińskich, Wrocław-Warszawa-Kraków 1991,
- chapter. 6.

J. Gęsicki, *Jak nie zwariować w szkole? (Niepedagogiczny poradnik dla nauczycieli i uczniów)* [How Can One Keep from Going Crazy in School: (An Unorthodox Guide for Teachers and Students)], Interium S.C., Warszawa, 1992.

S.F. Heck, C.R., Williams, *The Complex Roles of the Teacher. An Ecological Perspective*, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, New York/London 1984:
- Chapter 1, *The Teacher as a Person: A Caring Role*, p. 1-10,
- Chapter 2, *The Teacher as a Colleague: A Supporting Role*, p. 14-27,
- Chapter 9, *Transition into the Profession: An Aspiring Role*, p. 150-158,
- Chapter 10, *The Teacher as a Decision Maker: A Problem Solving Role*, p. 168-172.

A. Janowski, *Uczeń w teatrze życia codziennego szkoły* [Student in the Theater of the School], WSiP, Warszawa, 1989.

W. Kobyliński, *ABC organizacji pracy nauczyciela* [The ABC's of Organizing the Teacher's Work], (II edition), Warszawa, 1988.

Z. Kwieciński, *Dynamika funkcjonowania szkoły* [Dynamics of the Functioning of School], PWN, Warszawa 1990.

W. Kozłowski, *Sztuka negocjacji* [Art of Negotiation], MEN, Warszawa, 1990.

Th. Lickona, *Educating for Character. How Our Schools Can Teach Respect and Responsibility*, Bantam Books, New York/Toronto/London/Sydney/Auckland, 1992, Part II: *Classroom Strategies for Teaching Respect and Responsibility*:
- Chapter 5, *The Teacher as Care-giver, Model and Mentor*, p. 71-89,
- Chapter 6, *Creating a Moral Community in the Classroom*, p. 89-109,
- Chapter 8, *Creating a Democratic Classroom Environment: The Class Meeting*, p.135-161,
- Chapter 14, *Teaching Controversial Issues*, p. 268-286,
- Chapter 15, *Teaching Children to Solve Conflicts*, p. 286-299.

J. Radziewicz, *Wychowawca i jego klasa. Książka dla młodych nauczycieli* [The Teacher Advisor and His Class. A Book for Young Teachers], WSiP, Warszawa, 1986.

J. Radziewicz (ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa 1993.

A. Radziwiłł, *O szkole, wychowaniu i polityce* [On School, Education, and Politics], WSiP, Warszawa, 1992.

H. Rylke, *W zgodzie z sobą i uczniem. Z doświadczeń nauczycieli i psychologów* [At Peace with Oneself and One's Student. From Experiences of Teachers and Psychologists], WSiP, Warszawa, 1993.

Trening efektywności pracy nauczycieli [Training of Effective Teacher Performance], Prezentacje MOP PTP, 'Zeszyty Problemowo-Metodyczne' nr 2, 1987.

TOPIC II: STUDENT RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Definition of the Topic

In Polish schools, the concept of student rights has been defined most often in the category of "minority necessities" as they apply to the direct participation of the children in the educational process. The attention of educators has focused on such issues as: (a) equal access to knowledge for every child, (b) adequacy of the requirements for the developmental stages of the child, and (c) just evaluation of achievements and effective feed back. Much attention is given to hygiene matters, student protection from harm, as well as student rights for leisure and recreation. Under the new Education Law, students have the right to influence the process of schooling through participation in the School Council, student self-government, and independent student organizations.

Therefore, rights of the students along with students' responsibilities specify the child's position in the school according to the goals of education. Also, they are treated as one of the instruments to preserve the smoothness and effectiveness of the educational process.

One should not be surprised, then, that very often students can hardly recognize their formal rights. Instead, they believe that in any case their "rights" are dependent on the good or ill will of the teacher. Very often, teachers manipulate student rights as liberties (entitlements) that can be given to students when they preform "reasonably", "properly", or "nicely."

Instead of the relatively narrow concept of "student rights", we propose a broader perspective for this topic -- "the rights of the child in school." As a basis, we suggest The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). CRC recognizes that children have all the rights that humans possess along with the special rights their minority requires. It is spacious enough, then, to explore all fundamental rights of children in the school setting, including those neglected or underestimated by practice in the daily life of Polish schools.

The goal for this part of the syllabus is to endow teachers with knowledge about these rights and basic skills for the recognition of both rights and threats to these rights, as well as skills for helping children in the execution of their rights. A special accent should be put on:

1. **Personal Rights** (e.g., the right of free speech, the right to dignity and honor, the right to privacy);
2. **The Rights to Protection from Abuse** (e.g., problems connected with physical and psychological violence, and problems of economic exploitation);
3. **The Rights Connected with Welfare** (e.g., medical and social welfare, leisure, and recreation); and
4. **The Rights of the "Bad Child"** (e.g., due process for acts against the school code and how to deal with a child who committed a criminal act).

The instructor, together with the preservice teachers, can decide the areas of children's rights on which they should concentrate, as well as how deeply they should penetrate the associated problems. In addition to the preservice teachers' interests, other important factors are the types of schools at which they will work in the future (elementary, high, vocational), the part of Poland in which they will work ("central" or "peripheral" provinces), and location of the school (village, small town, big city). Such contextual factors can influence the emergence of specific issues concerning the violation of student rights.

2. Key Issues

1. **Personal Rights.** Very often, these rights are not recognized as indispensable. Teachers perceive these as threats to school discipline and order and doubtful for the well being of the child. We propose then to emphasize the nature and the enforcement of the personal rights of children in the school.

Key issues:

a. What kinds of threats to the child's integrity does he/she face when in school?

b. How can the teacher help the student save his/her dignity in a difficult situation?

c. What are the limits to a student's freedom of expression (in speech, behavior, dress, etc.)?

d. Under what legal circumstances can the teacher put limits on a student's right to privacy?

e. How can the teacher help "different children" (e.g., religious minority and/or handicapped) protect their rights?

f. What should be done in situations of disagreement with respect to the execution of student's rights:

  - between the teacher and the student?
  - between the teacher and another teacher?
  - between the teacher and the parents?

g. What can be done when a teacher thinks that a student is both overly concerned about his/her rights and careless about his/her responsibilities?

h. How can an "adult" (over 18) student's rights be related to their school responsibilities?

i. How can the teacher's care for students' personal rights influence the process of teaching and teacher-student relations?

2. **The Rights to Protection from Abuse.** Generally, teachers are both aware and concerned about this set of rights. Very often, however, they are not able to recognize that the student is a victim of abuse. Also, they do not know what help they can provide to the students.

Key issues:

a. How can the teacher recognize that something wrong is happening to the student?

b. How can teachers find what is going on with respect to student dignity and privacy?

c. What social services and civic groups can be helpful in such cases?

d. How can the teacher deal with child-child exploitation?

e. How can the teacher deal with parents who abuse their child?

3. **The Rights Connected with Welfare.** More and more, the growing poverty of some groups in Poland is influencing the life of the school community. Sometimes teachers are the only people

to provide parents with advice on whom to contact when the family is in a deep economic crisis. They also have to take care of poor children in the classroom. Very often, they do not have the necessary information and do not know the proper procedures. Also, they can have difficulties in helping children without humiliating them in the process.

Key issues:

a. What institutions (organizations, civic groups) can teachers address when looking to help students with economic problems?

b. Where can the teacher look for support to organize recreation for all his/her students, independently of their economic status?

c. What can decrease the tension between "rich" and "poor" children in the classroom?

d. What can be done to make students from poor families feel "safe" in the classroom?

4. **The Rights of the "Bad Child."** Arbitrary discipline in schools can lead to a denial of the accused student's right to due process. This is especially the case for a delinquent child. Generally, in Polish society, the rights of somebody who is a "criminal" are barely recognized. For example, the label of "thief" is sufficient for being suspected of a transgression at any time.

Key issues:

a. What does the right to "due process" mean with respect to the school's rules?

b. What does "just punishment" mean in the school setting?

c. What should the teacher do when something is stolen in the classroom?

d. What should the teacher do when students accuse each other of being a "thief?"

e. What should and can the teacher do when a student is suspected of providing other pupils with drugs or alcohol?

f. How is the teacher supposed to behave when a police officer demands to interrogate his/her student?

3. Student Objectives

I. Knowledge Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. know child/student rights;

b. understand the nature of child/student rights; and

c. realize the importance of child/student rights in school.

II. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. apply concepts of multiple child/student rights to the school setting;

b. distinguish between basic rights and privileges;

c. make judgments about threats to student rights and areas of conflict that involve student rights;

d. know how to gather information about threats to child/student rights;

e. know how to find help when child/student rights are threatened;

f. make decisions about the execution of child/student rights; and

g. devise conflict management strategies for different "threats to rights" situations in the school setting.

4. Background Information on the Topic

A. General Suggestions

Specifics of this topic are linked to the fact that the pertinent issues tend to create tension and various conflicts within the school setting. Formally, the educational system recognizes the rights of children, but, at the same time, they are generally violated and misunderstood. For this reason, it is important to accentuate the necessity for the preservice teachers to be well informed about student rights and to be aware of the problems a teacher may face when dealing with this issue in a real school setting. One should remember, however, that our preservice students -- many of whom left high schools not long ago -- experience a sort of natural ease to identify themselves with pupils. As a result, they may display rather idealistic attitudes toward and wishes for their behavior as teachers in the future. Because of that, the instructor should insist on a "deep" inquiry into the problems embedded in the topic. If necessary, the instructor should play the role of *advocatus diaboli* by expanding the problems under discussion and preventing the students from formulating any simple solutions.

Second, when dealing with the problems of student rights, preservice teachers should be provided with opportunities to identify with the teacher's role. Provision of these opportunities raises the necessity for practical experiences that help in comprehending potential barriers and difficulties from the actions of both other people and themselves. Eight to ten school hours designed for this topic are not many considering the complexity of the problems. Nevertheless, we recommend a "qualitative" rather than "quantitative" approach to this issue. It is better to leave out less important problems than to meet them on the level of simplified truisms and wishful thinking.

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

With eight school hours (six clock hours) allotted for this topic, we propose to organize the topic into three units:

Unit 1

Personal Rights of the Child in School

(1.5 clock hours)

We suggest beginning this unit with a short (15 - 20 minutes) test on the preservice teachers' knowledge of the formal regulations of children's rights as well as the rights and responsibilities of students. This test is recommended for use in evaluating student performance on this topic.

The second part of the unit should start with making up a list of the personal rights of children in the school. Students can work on this task in small groups. Next, they should try to coordinate the small group results with other groups and record the list of the personal rights of students on the blackboard or posters.

During the next step, students should consider the indispensability of the rights of children in the daily life of the school. In order to reach this objective, they may work in small groups to find solutions for conflicts, such as the right of free speech vs. the recent school newspaper article that insults girls; the right to privacy vs. the teacher's suspicion that a student has brought alcohol or drugs to school; and the right for a just evaluation of learning achievements in the case of the student who displays a negative attitude toward the teacher. More grist for the resolution of difficult cases can be found in the daily newspapers, teacher journals, school newspapers, and materials published by the Committee for the Protection of Child Rights. While elaborating on these problems, students should find answers (unanimously, if possible) for questions like: What should the teacher do to solve this problem? Why? Would this behavior limit student rights? What would be the consequences of this solution for the student and his/her relationship with the teacher? In addition, they must examine problems involved with gaining consensus: Was it possible? If consensus was achieved, what aided the process? What were the main obstacles?

The general discussion on the results of the students' deliberations may begin with an exchange of the reasons "for" and "against" the limitations on student rights under certain circumstances. Then, participants may categorize both sets of reasons. Some categorical examples may include student characteristics; the teacher's personal characteristics; attributes of the role of the teacher; the interests of other people involved in the situation; and the specific, contextual circumstances.

Unit 2:

The Endangered Child

(1.5 clock hours)

We propose to assign the first part of this unit to the problems of a neglected or abused child. Based on the assigned readings, that can be supplemented with a short lecture by the instructor (15-20 minutes), students should discuss the following question: How can one recognize that something serious is happening to the child? Continue with: What can and should the teacher do in such a situation?

In order for teachers to address the issue of the neglected or abused child, they must be familiar with any institutions that are prepared to assist the teacher in dealing with the problem. We propose that the students investigate institutions prepared to help the neglected or abused child and describe them in written or oral form (see: "5. Student Readings"). Students have to accomplish this task outside class time. Each of them has to visit such an institution, conduct a telephone interview, or mail a request for information. The list of relevant questions should be prepared in advance. The results of their research may be discussed at the beginning of the next session.

The purpose of the second part of this unit is to make students sensitive to the rights of children who feel inferior to their classmates (e.g., physically handicapped, minority members, and/or poverty stricken). We propose a small group session for solving different problems in this area. The instructor should prepare a few problem scenarios (open-ended cases) in advance. For example:

> You are a teacher in a small country school. The opportunity has arisen to organize an exciting but inexpensive excursion to the big city for the children of your class. However, you are aware that in the case of a few children, their parents will not be able to afford even a small amount of money to cover some of the cost. A father of the one of your students, a rich local businessman, offers help. He is ready to pay the expenses of the poor children. You are about to accept his offer. How will you approach your students about this situation when explaining the financial aspects of the trip?

During discussions on cases of this sort, we should not concentrate exclusively on the rights of children that can be jeopardized and on the protection of these rights. It is also important to consider implications of the different actions of the teacher for the classroom climate and the relationships between students.

Unit 3:

Summary and Simulation - "A Bomb Threat in the School"

(3 clock hours)

The first part of this unit (about 30 minutes) should be assigned to the exchange of information, gathered as an assignment in Unit 2, on the institutions that provide help for children in trouble. If done properly, this information can be compiled into a booklet for every student to have as a helpful reference during their teaching career. If needed, the instructor can add more information to that collected by students.

The purpose of the second part of this unit is to provide students with an opportunity to synthesize everything they have learned on student rights and responsibilities by applying this knowledge to a school situation developed through a simulation. We believe that such an experience can help them to understand the position of children's rights when an authentic and serious conflict emerges in the school. This sort of conflict is accompanied by extreme tension. It is a conflict in which different and seemingly competitive interests and values come to light. This experience can be useful for students to reflect upon their preferences, internal barriers, and difficulties associated with this topic. The scenario for the simulation is included in *Auxiliary Materials*.

One of the possible student tasks for summarizing this experience in particular and the knowledge they gained while studying this topic in general is to enumerate all possible obstructions of which the prospective teacher should be aware if he/she does not want to lose his concern for student rights when confronted with the "real" life of the school.

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

We propose three elements for student assessment:

1. Test performance on the legal regulations of children and students' rights;

2. Performance on collecting information about the institutions that protect children; and

3. Participation in and contribution to discussions.

5. Readings for Students

J. Bińczycka (Ed.), *Prawa dziecka. Deklaracje i rzeczywistość* [Child Rights. Declaration and Reality], Materiały z konferencji [Materials from a Conference] - Rembertów 19-21 czerwca 1992 rok, Impuls, Kraków 1993:

- J. Gromska, *Raport o przestępczości wobec dzieci, w tym seksualnej* [Report on Child Abuse, Including Sexual Abuse], p. 183-197,
- J. Kłoskowski, *Prawo ucznia do sukcesu* [Student's Right to Succeed], p. 371-379,
- J. Radziewicz, *O "wychowaniu społeczeństw" do respektowania praw dziecka* [On "Education of Society" for Respect of Children's Rights], p. 125-132,
- J. Santorski, *Emocjonalne prawa dziecka* [Emotional Rights of the Child], p. 133-142.

J. Bińczycka, *Humaniści o relacji dorośli-dzieci* [Humanists on Adult-Child Relationships], (in:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

E. Czyż (Ed.), *Dziecko i jego prawa* [Children and Their Rights], Biblioteka Komitetu Ochrony Praw Dziecka, Warszawa, 1992:

- E. Czyż, *Konwencja o Prawach Dziecka. Wprowadzenie* [Convention on Children's Rights. Introduction] , p. 14-16,
- E. Czyż, *Jak pomóc dziecku krzywdzonemu* [How to Help the Wronged Child], p. 95-102,
- J. Gęsicki, *Prawa dziecka w szkole* [Children's Rights in the School], p. 69-79,
- *Konwencja o Prawach Dziecka* [Convention on Children's Rights], p. 17-40.
- M. Szymańczak, *Od prawa do życia do prawa do samostanowienia* [From Right to Life to Right of Self-determination] p. 6-13.

J. Korczak, *Pisma Wybrane* [Anthology of Selected Writings] (Ed. A. Lewin), Nasza Księgarnia, Warszawa 1978:

- Vol. 1, *Prawo dziecka do szacunku* [The child's right to respect].

J. Radziewicz, *Samorząd szkolny. Fikcje, Warunki, Szanse* [The students' self-government. Fiction, conditions, chances], 'Wielka Gra', Zeszyt nr 6, Warszawa, 1991.

SOS - Dziecko [SOS - Child], Materiały informacyjne KOPD [Informative Material from the Committee on the Protection of Children's Rights], zeszyt IV, Warszawa, 1992:

- Wykaz terenowych Komitetów Ochrony Praw Dziecka [The Register of Local Committees for Protection of Children's Rights], p. 30-35,
- Ważniejsze organizacje i fundacje pomagające dzieciom [More Important Organizations and Foundations Aimed at Helping Children], p. 72-73.

Ustawa o Systemie Oświaty z dnia 7 września 1991r. [Educational System Act from September 7, 1991], Dz. U. nr 95 (te fragmenty, które dotyczą praw i obowiązków uczniów oraz samorządności szkolnej [the issues that concern the rights and responsibilities of students and issues that concern student self-governing]). A także inne dokumenty odnoszące się do tych kwestii (zarządzenia Ministra Edukacji, Kodeksy Ucznia, Regulaminy Szkolne itp.) [Other legal documents that concern these issues (decrees of the Minister of Education, Student Codes, School Codes)].

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

M. Balcerek, *Prawa dziecka* [Rights of the Child], PWN, Warszawa, 1986.

J. Bińczycka, *Prawa dziecka. Deklaracje i rzeczywistość* [Children's Rights. Declarations and Reality], Materiały z Konferencji [Materials from a Conference] - Rembertów 19-21 czerwca 1992 roku, Impuls, Kraków, 1993.

J. Gęsicki, *Sytuacja dziecka w szkole. Jaka jest? Jaka może być?* [Situation of the Child in the School. What is it? What could it be?], IBE, Warszawa, 1990.

A. Janowski, *Uczeń w teatrze życia szkolnego* [Student in the Theater of School], WSiP, Warszawa, 1989.

J. Korczak, *Pisma wybrane* [Anthology of Selected Writings] (Ed. A. Lewin), Nasza Księgarnia, Warszawa 1978.

Z. Kwieciński, *Socjopatologia edukacji* [Socio-pathology of Education], Edytor, Warszawa, 1992.

A. Łopatka (Ed.), *Konwencja o prawach dziecka a prawo polskie* [Convention on Children's Rights and Polish Law], Wyd. Sejmowe, Warszawa, 1991.

J. R. Price, A.H. Levien, E. Cary, *The Rights of Students. The Basic ACLU Guide to a Student's Rights*, Southern Illinois University Press, 1988.

A. Rzepliński (Ed.), *Prawa i wolności człowieka* [Rights and Freedoms of the Individual], CODN, Warszawa, 1993.

TOPIC III: PARENTAL PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOLS

1. Definition of the Topic

This topic covers the variety of new possibilities for parental influence in the Polish system of schooling and gives reasons for parental participation in schools. Also, it covers such aspects of parental participation as the teacher in relation to parents because teachers are the most important agents who contribute to positive relations and creative parental participation in schools. This is important, especially in the present Polish context where many parents display helplessness toward school. It can not be changed exclusively by law. Teachers' positive attitudes, initiatives, and competencies are necessary.

The first rationale of parental participation in schools is connected to the general ideas of democracy. Democratic society is a society based on the right of people to influence different spheres of public life. Guarantees for this right are rooted in two democratic values: freedom of the individual and equality of citizens. For this reason, parental direction of a child's education according to family expectations, values, and traditions is a natural phenomenon in every democratic society. For the same reason, parents have a right to influence the school in order to be sure that educational outcomes meet generally accepted standards, needs, and directions of societal development.

These requirements create an area of potential tension in a society. Tension may occur if parental expectations regarding the educational system and educational outcomes are in contradiction to the actuality of schooling. Prospective teachers should be aware of this problem.

Yet, there is also the second rationale of parental participation in schools -- the benefits for education and schooling. Parental involvement results frequently in positive outcomes, such as higher test scores, long-term academic achievement, positive behavior and attitudes, more successful programs, and more effective schools. Parents are the one ingredient essential to all the programs studied, and the greater the degree of parental involvement, the more successful the children and the program. There is also a place and a need for other relatives to be involved in schools, such as grandparents who traditionally play an important role in the education of their grandchildren in Poland.

The reality of the problem in the Polish system of schooling results from the past model of education. In the centrally governed system of schooling, its efficiency was estimated and evaluated with regard to one ideological pattern of "the man-of-the future." So, parental participation in school was limited to simple forms of assistance as advised by the school's authorities. Parental passivity was dominant because responsibility for schooling and education was considered to be the charge of the state.

Generally, this topic relates to the forms and limits of parental participation in schools. It takes into account the assistance and cooperation of teachers and considers ways of calling parental attention to these forms and responsibilities for education.

2. Key Issues

1. What are the organizations for parental participation in Polish schools and how do they work?
2. What are the forms of parental participation in schools?
   a. How can parents contribute to teaching?
   b. How can parents participate in helping all children of the school to learn?
   c. Can parents participate in school management? If so, how?
3. What should be included in codes that govern parental participation in schools?
4. What are the consequences of parental participation in schools, and how should they be approached?
5. How can a teacher organize relations with parents?
6. How can Poland use foreign patterns of parental participation in schools?

3. Student objectives

I. Knowledge Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. understand organizations for parental participation in schools;

b. recognize the function and influence of parents on schools;

c. understand different factors that influence different levels of parental commitment in schools; and

d. analyze reasons for reluctance among parents who wish not to participate in schools.

II. Skill objectives. Students should be able to:

a. make judgments on the real role of parents in schools;

b. use alternative methods of communicating with parents;

c. anticipate the consequences of parental participation, or lack thereof;

d. develop methods to make parents aware of their rights and responsibilities and encourage their participation in school.

4. Background Information on the Topic

A. General Suggestions

This topic concerns a quite "thorny" problem of school reality. The negative practices of the past resulted in unfriendly attitudes of parents toward school and of school toward parents. The absence of a proper experience and even ideas about what is possible and necessary prompts a need for rebuilding in this area. Prospective teachers are able to contribute considerably to this task since they do not share the old prejudices. In order to do so, they need at least an elementary recognition of the problem as well as the basic competencies necessary for interacting with parents.

For this objective, three aspects of the problem should be accentuated. Students have to learn (a) the legal base for parental involvement in school life, (b) possible practices for their participation (even if those practices have yet to be adopted broadly), and (c) methods of encouraging parental involvement in the school.

For this topic, we suggest employing both active teaching methods and methods such as lectures and document analysis. Also, we propose to encourage students to make suggestions for new legal solutions. It is worth mentioning that against a background of poor previous experiences, some student ideas can be innovative and valuable.

When dealing with this topic, it may be useful to refer to any accessible materials concerning practice of and settlements for parental participation in schooling (e.g., reports of in-service teachers and newspaper articles).

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

Our example consists of six separate units of one school hour (45 minutes) each. Instructors may, however, combine several units into bigger units, depending upon logistical possibilities and individual preferences.

Unit 1

Why Is Parental Participation in the Education of Their Children Important?

(45 minutes)

Prior to class, we suggest that students prepare an essay (no more than 500 words) on their opinion concerning parental participation in education. They should address the following questions:

1. To what degree should parents be involved in the education of their children?
2. In what forms?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of parental participation in schooling?

This class should involve a discussion based on the students' papers. Discussion can begin with gathering and recording (on the blackboard or a poster) all possible arguments for and against parental participation in schooling. Instructor commentary should refer to Polish experiences collected by some "social" schools[3] as well as to practices in some other countries that challenge many of the existing stereotypes and myths.

Unit 2

The Legal Basis for Parental Participation in Polish School Life

(45 minutes)

Students should divide into small groups to study different legal documents that concern parental participation in education. This analysis should help them to comprehend the goals of legislators as well as different institutional frameworks for involving parents in school life.

The remainder of class should be devoted to a critical examination of the documents. Special attention should be paid to weak aspects of the documents and those aspects that can promote parental engagement in schooling (for details, see *Auxiliary Materials*).

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[3] In Poland, social schools are organized mostly by parents and teachers together as an experimental alternative to the state schools.

Unit 3

How Do Parents Participate in the Life of the School?

(45 minutes)

In preparation for this class, each student will conduct an interview with a person selected from the following group: a teacher, a school principal, or a parent. The interview should focus on the actual participation of parents in school life and in their child's education. Students, with any needed assistance from the instructor, should prepare the interview design by themselves.

During class, data collected by students should be discussed. Existing forms of parental participation in schooling should be examined, and the most important obstacles that have been identified, as well as their causes, should be explored.

Some time can be designated for an analysis of problems involved in the formal interview process. Among many others, these problems may include well and poorly aimed questions and possible difficulties encountered in establishing trust with an interlocutor.

Unit 4

Engaging Parents in School Activities

(45 minutes)

This class will take the form of a workshop. For this reason, we suggest a role playing exercise. In diads, students play the role of parent and teacher. The task of the "teacher" is to persuade the "parent" to participate in a non-obligatory meeting about working together to help students who have low grades. The parental roles should be differentiated on the basis of gender, age, level of education, profession, and level of income. Parental representation should include parents of "good" and "bad" students. This activity should last about 15 minutes. During the debriefing session that follows the role play exercise, students should note and discuss the most important barriers that arise when a teacher interacts with a parent.

Unit 5

Simulation: A Meeting with Parents

(45 minutes)

For this unit, we propose the simulation of a teacher-parents' meeting. This meeting concerns the problem of helping students who have difficulties with learning. The class should be divided into two or three small groups. In each group, one student should act as a teacher and the others as the parents. The parental roles should be differentiated as in the previous activity. The simulation unfolds with the "teacher" asking for parents to volunteer for small, parental teams (two to three people) that will help children with poor grades. The teacher's task is to encourage the parents to participate in this undertaking and to gather their thoughts on how much time they could commit to this activity (such commitments will serve as an indicator of the teacher's efficiency).

During each "meeting with parents," an observer should be present. The observer's task is to asses the communicative abilities of the "teacher" as he/she deals with the "parents." For this task, the observer can use an instructor-prepared scale for evaluation. The scale may include categories such as "speaks clearly" vs. "does not speak clearly" (i.e., it is difficult to understand what he/she means) and "leads conversation" vs. "gives instructions." The ensuing discussion should focus on the common errors committed by teachers in this type of situation.

Unit 6

Summary: How Can Parents Participate in the Life of the School?

(45 minutes)

This unit is organized around a "brain storming" exercise. To begin, the students' task is to generate as many ideas as possible on what parents can do to participate in their child's education. The instructor must accentuate that at this stage every idea, even a preposterous idea, is "good." The second phase of the exercise seeks an evaluation of the ideas based upon the possibility of their introduction into Polish schools. Ideas evaluated by students as "unrealistic" should be analyzed from the point of view of obstacles to realizing these ideas, as well as the possibilities and the methods for removal of these obstacles. The ideas recognized as useful can be copied and given to each student; they may be adopted by the students during their professional activities.

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

We propose that student assessments for this topic include the following elements:

1. Performance in discussions and on preparatory tasks;
2. A short essay on a problem chosen by the student. The level of problem formulation can be evaluated as well.

5. Readings for Students

A. Bogaj, *Funkcjonowanie szkół średnich w ocenie uczniów i rodziców* [How High Schools Function in the Eyes of Students and Parents], 'Edukacja' no. 2, 1990.

J. Bukowski, *Rodzice* [Parents], 'Społeczeństwo otwarte' no. 6, Warszawa, 1990, p. 50-51.

J. Bukowski, *'Zmory'* [Nightmare], 'Społeczeństwo otwarte' [Open Society] no. 7, Warszawa, 1990, p. 52.

A. Radziwiłł, *O współdziałaniu między szkołą a domem* [On Cooperation between School and Home], WSiP, Warszawa, 1975.

S. Rogala, *Rodzice w szkole tradycyjnej i demokratycznej* [Parents in the Traditional and the Democratic School], (In:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

J. Bloom, *Parenting Our Schools*, Little Brown & Company, Boston, 1992,
- Chapter: *From Parental Involvement to Parent Advocacy: A Natural Progression*, p. 15-30.

G.S. Boutte, D.L. Keepler, V.S. Tyler, B.Z. Terry, *Effective Techniques for Involving 'Difficult' Parents*, 'Young Children', March, 1992.

C. Chernov, F.B. Chernov, *Classroom - Survival Guide for Middle School/Junior High Teachers*, The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1989,
- Chapter 14: *Enlisting Parent Support.*

R. Pachociński, *Demokratyzacja szkoły za granicą na przykładzie krajów wysoko rozwiniętych* [Democratization of the school abroad based on examples of developed countries], (In:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [*Teaching Democracy*], CODN, Warszawa, 1992, p. 12-17.

Ustawa o Systemie Oświaty z dnia 7 września 1991 roku [Educational System Act from Sept. 7, 1991], (Dz.U. nr 95, poz. 425) a także inne dokumenty odnoszące się do tematyki bloku (w tym statuty szkół, regulaminy Rad Szkół i Rad Rodziców) [and other documents that concern the content of this topic (including school statutes and regulations of school councils and parents councils)].

TOPIC IV: SCHOOL AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

1. Definition of the topic.

For 40 years, Polish schools were controlled centrally by the state. Neither parents nor representatives of the local community had any influence on the school. Both groups have been allowed by the new school law (1990) to participate in school councils. New school reform is scheduled for 1994. At that time, many elementary schools in Poland will be run by local authorities.

There is a great challenge for teachers to reconstruct the relationship between the local community and the school. Without any previous experiences, this task is extremely difficult. The system of school control under communism made impossible all independent, direct relations between the school and any other institutions and groups. Those connections were mostly organized and controlled by the initiatives from the officials at the Ministry of National Education.

Now, specific knowledge and skills are necessary for the teacher to be a partner with the representatives of the local community. The new situation has provoked much misunderstanding and many conflicts. The teacher should be aware of the negative and positive consequences generated by the decentralization of school control. She/he should be able to cope with these problems.

This part of the course has three major tasks. The students should learn how to:

1. recognize the major formal and informal groups, the relations between them, and also the "locus of power" in the local community;
2. cooperate with those groups; and
3. protect the students from pathological groups in the community.

By analyzing the development of local communities and their influence on school life, we would also like to focus on some general issues of democratic society, such as the problem of participation in public life and the process of developing a civil society.

For this topic, the notion of "local community" has two meanings: (a) local community as *gmina* - administrative unit; and (b) local community as "community" - the social relationship created on a neighborhood basis.

2. Key issues

1. What will be the consequences of the decentralization of school control?
2. What is the most desirable level of centralization and decentralization of control for educational systems?
3. What is or can be the impact of local pressure groups on the school?
4. What are the difficulties in involving the community in the life of the school?
5. What could be the role of volunteers in the school?

3. Student objectives

I. Knowledge Objectives. The students should be able to:

a. know how to recognize the major groups and institutions in local communities,

b. know the basic rule of *gmina* law,

c. realize the influence of the local authorities on school,

d. understand how pressure groups arise and how they work in the local communities,

e. realize the location of the main sources of conflict in the local communities, and

f. understand the stimuli and barriers for the people's participation in the public life of the local communities.

II. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. collect and organize information about social life in local communities,

b. communicate with groups that have or can have influence on the school,

c. initiate cooperation between various groups in the local community, and

d. participate in discussions and negotiations with the representatives of the local community.

4. Background Information on the Topic

A. General Suggestions

This topic concerns one of the most demanding issues connected to the needs of Polish schools in order to be situated in a democratically organized society -- the issue of the relation between schools and local communities and local authorities. At this time, the first positive patterns of such relations are developing, and prospective teachers have to be aware of the many problems faced by schools in this area.

Because of the novelty of the problem, students must be provided with an opportunity to examine both the local community and local authority. Their observations and experiences should be presented and analyzed during class. To gain information, students have to interview representatives of the local government (especially individuals from the Educational Commission of the Local Council) and school representatives. No research reports can replace personal contact with a person who is directly involved in the school and community affairs.

The data collected by the students should be compared with the results of more extensive studies. These studies consist of information on the functioning of local self-government in present-day Poland as well as facts concerning different local communities (e.g., internal partitions, different lobbies, and the conflicts between them). Aside from discussions based on the assigned readings, the instructor can use active methods of teaching, such as short simulations of events (including actual events that have been presented by the mass-media) or role playing.

Also, we suggest a class discussion of the guide *How to Work for the Community* (see "5. Student Readings"). This guide is based on the experiences of American society and concerns specifics about that society. Nevertheless, if using this guide in conjunction with information about Polish local communities, it can be helpful for understanding different barriers, including obstacles for public activity that are symptomatic of a post-communist society.

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

For this topic we propose eight class hours (six clock hours) organized into four units.

Unit 1

Local Authority

(1.5 clock hours)

This first unit should be designated for student preparation of questionnaires for the aforementioned interviews concerning cooperation between the school and local authorities and obstacles they may meet on the road to cooperation. The reports from the students' interviews will be delivered to every member of the group. Reports will be discussed during the last class meeting on this topic (see Unit 4). Details concerning the procedure for constructing these interviews are presented in *Auxiliary Materials*.

Unit 2

Characteristics of Local Communities

(1.5 clock hours)

The goal of this unit is to familiarize students with social phenomena that influence the functioning of local communities, such as: (a) the development of social bonds, (b) neighborhood relations, (c) the formation of interest groups, and (d) the generation of conflicts.

The first part of the class serves as a discussion on the specific characteristics of the different types of the local communities: village community, small town community, big city community (based on case studies; see: "5. Readings for Students"). Data provided by the assigned readings may be compared and contrasted with the students' personal experiences. To what extent are the places they know different from the descriptions in the literature? In summarizing this exercise, the factors that facilitate or hinder the development of social bonds should be stressed. Later, students should enlist all "pro" and "con" arguments when answering the following question: What are the prospects for the continued existence of local communities in modern societies?

The second problem undertaken during this class concerns interest groups. Discussion can be based on an analysis of the guide: *How to Work for the Community* (see "D. Student Readings"). It can begin with the following question: What problems would Mrs. Gibbs face if she were acting in Polish society?

During the summary of the class, the instructor should address the following problems: (a) identification of the different groups within a local community; (b) the hidden and open interests of the groups; (c) the process of developing an awareness of common interests; (d) the skill to articulate common interests; (e) the institutionalization of interest groups;

(f) the role of associations and foundations; and (g) the relationship: "civic society - democratic society."

Student knowledge can be applied to the following practical task. In small groups, they should prepare a strategy for a specific action that will serve the school and in which they would like to engage the local community. They have to suggest methods for spreading the information, for gaining allies, for overcoming passivity, and for predicting sources of opposition to the action.

Unit 3

Conflicts within Local Communities

(1.5 clock hours)

This class should help students to realize the frequency of conflict situations in local communities and the conditions that are conducive to conflict resolution. As a starting point for discussion, we suggest the use of real cases of conflicts with which students are personally familiar or conflicts described by the media.

The second part of the class is a very practical activity. We propose the simulation of a discussion on the possible assignment of money from the community fund to the school. The simulation may be based on the following scenario, with students choosing or being assigned to take up the roles of the different characters and viewpoints:

> Discussion takes place during a session of the Local Council. As a result of a correction in the tax regulation, the community received a rebate of 100 million zlotys. The representatives of the Commission of Education want this

money to be designated for a new school sports hall. Members of the Municipality Commission demand this money be used for the construction of a new waterworks. The aim of the discussion is to persuade members of the Local Council who have yet to form an opinion. The community inhabitants and school representatives can also participate in the discussion.

Unit 4

The Position of the School in the Community

(1.5 clock hours)

The goal for this unit is to summarize knowledge on the functions of the local community and its relationship with schools. Students should present the results of their interviews from Unit 1. These results should include:

1. the characteristics of the places, schools, and Local Councils that were investigated;
2. the extent of the Local Council's influence on the school: Does it control school funds? Does it influence the appointment of the school staff? Do members of the Local Council discuss school affairs frequently? Does the Local Council strive toward control over the school? (with an accompanying explanation of "Why?" or "Why not?"); and
3. the ways of influencing the Local Council as exercised by the school staff, participation of school representatives in the Local Council, and the level of support that the school obtains from the local community.

The materials collected by students together with the information from assigned readings should establish a platform for discussion. Discussion should accentuate the following questions: What are the reasons for community interest (or lack thereof) in school affairs? What possibilities exist for the community to influence schooling? What possibilities exist for the school staff to influence the decisions of the Local Council? Which of these possibilities does either group exercise, if any? What is the role of the teacher in developing the relationship between the school and the community?

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

We propose the following possibilities for student assessment on this unit:

1. Participation in and contribution to discussions and the simulation.
2. The gathering and reporting of data from the interview assignment.

5. Readings for Students

Any articles from newspapers and journals (preceding local elections and discussing conflicts in the local communities).

E. Borkowska, J. Warakowski, *Zadania samorządu terytorialnego* [The Tasks of Local Self-government], Wyd. Samorządowe FRDL, Warszawa, 1990.

J. Chałasiński (Ed.), *Pamiętniki nauczycieli w 75-cio lecie ZNP. Z prac nadesłanych na konkurs* [Memoirs of Teachers from the 75th Anniversary of Polish Teachers Union. Selections from the Memoir Competition], WSiP, Warszawa, 1980.

M. Czerwiński, *Życie po miejsku* [Life-style in the City], PIW, Warszawa, 1974.

W. Giełżyński, *Lokalizm i samosprawdzające się utopie* [Localism and the self-fulfilling utopia], 'Państwo i Kultura Polityczna' no. 5, 1988.

M. Kogan, *Jak działać społecznie* [How to Work for the Community], League of Women Voters Education Fund, Washington DC, 1992.

W. Kozłowski, *Sztuka negocjowania* [The Art of Negotiation], Fundacja edukacji dla demokracji, Warszawa, 1990.

E. Łojko, *Socjologiczne problemy samorządności lokalnej* [Sociological problems of local self-government], (In:) A. Piekara, Z. Niewiadomski (Ed.), *Samorząd terytorialny i rozwój lokalny* [Local Self-government and Local Development], Wyd. UW, Warszawa, 1992.

E. Redliński, *Konopielka*, (Wyd. pierwsze), Ludowa Spółdzielnia Wydawnicza, Warszawa, 1973.

J. Regulski, *Pogadanki o samorządzie terytorialnym* [Speeches About Local Self-Government], Wyd. Samorządowe FRDL, Warszawa, 1990.

Z. Uniszewski, *Konflikty i negocjacje* [Conflicts and Negotiation]. *Poradnik* [A Guide], Wyd. Samorządowe FRDL, Warszawa, 1993,
- Chapter 5 i 6.

Przepisy wprowadzające Ustawę o Samorządzie Terytorialnym i Ustawę o Pracownikach Samorządowych z 10 maja 1990 roku [Regulation for introducing the act on local self-government and the act of local self-government employees from May 10, 1990], Dz. U. nr 32, 43 i 93.

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

B. Jałowiecki, P. Świaniewicz (Ed.), *Między nadzieją a rozczarowaniem* [In between Hope and Disappointment], Wyd. UW, Warszawa, 1991.

A. Jasińska-Kania, J.J. Wiatr, *Polish Local Leaders in New Realities*, (In:) J.J. Wiatr (Ed.), *The Politics of Democratic Transformation: Poland after 1989*, Scholar Agency, Warszawa, 1993, p. 57-79.

J. Kurczewska, K. Staszyńska, H. Bojar, *Blokady społeczeństwa obywatelskiego: słabe społeczeństwo obywatelskie i słabe państwo* [Obstacles to Civic Society: A Weak Civic Society and A Weak State], (In:) A. Rychard, M. Fedorowicz (Ed.), *Społeczeństwo w transformacji. Ekspertyzy i studia* [Society in Transformation. Expertise and Studies], IFiS PAN, Warszawa, 1993, p. 84-96.

S. Nowak, *System wartości społeczeństwa* [Value System of the Society], 'Studia Społeczne' no. 4, 1979.

Podstawy prawne przejmowania i prowadzenia przez gminy szkół i placówek oświatowych [Legal Basis for the Takeover and Management of Schools and Other Educational Institutions by Local Self-Government], Wyd. Samorządowe FRDL, Warszawa, 1993.

A. Turska (Ed.), *Anatomia działań zbiorowych w społecznościach lokalnych* [The Anatomy of Collective Activity in Local Communities], Wyd. UW, Warszawa, 1990.

M.F.Wirt, W.M.Kirst, *Schools in Conflict*, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1989:
- Chapter 5, 6 i 7.

TOPIC V: THE DISTRIBUTION OF RESOURCES FOR EDUCATION

1. Definition of the Topic

One of the most important elements of democratic public life is equality. It is rooted in the belief that all people are created equal and have equal rights and opportunities. Since education is a public good in a democratic system, then the problem of equality of opportunities is connected to the system of education and schooling.

A basic assumption within a democratic society is that giving money for education is a kind of investment -- a very profitable one. It is the investment in people. People with good general and vocational knowledge and with well-developed skills are very important for the economic success of the society. They are also a condition *sine qua non* of the democratic process.

There are many different reasons for inequality, some of which depend on the economy. The first one is the uneven economic development of different regions in a country. This is the basic reason for the differences in the economic conditions of schooling among cities, small towns, and villages. The second cause that contributes to equal or unequal opportunities in education is the funding of schools. Particularly in the period of transition from a command economy to a market economy, there is a lack of public money and schools are under-funded. Even when education is considered to be a public good, it is not high on the list of public investment. At the same time, people who have money may pay for their child's education to take place in a private or semi-private setting. These factors can bring about an inequality of educational results.

These inequalities -- inequality of access and inequality of outcomes -- result in an inappropriate education causing uneven access to jobs and professions. It creates an uneven basis for participation in public life. It is against the democratic ideal of equity.

This topic covers some problems in this area. They include: (a) activity that can ensure that the distribution of resources will achieve equality for different types of schools; (b) economic conditions that are needed to create well-being within the system of schooling; (c) changes in Polish educational policy concerning the distribution of resources that contribute to equal educational opportunities for all children; and (d) patterns of distributing resources in other countries and how they can inform the Polish condition.

2. Key issues

1. How are resources distributed for education in Poland?
2. What can be changed and how can it be changed so that equal educational opportunities can be maximized?
    a. in economic policy?
    b. in school funding?
3. How can teachers influence decision making with regard to the distribution of resources for education?

4. How can parents participate in spending decisions in schools?

5. What patterns of resource distribution for education in other countries are useful guides for Poland?

6. What is the relation between economic well-being, education, and democracy?

3. Students Objectives

I. Knowledge objectives. Students should be able to:

a. understand forms of school funding;

b. recognize possible parental roles in funding the education of their children; and

c. understand the relationship between economic well-being and schooling in a democratic society.

II. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. make judgments concerning different ways of distributing resources for education;

b. discuss the advantages and the disadvantages of different patterns of resource distribution for education; and

c. plan how to generate financial support at the classroom level and at the school level.

4. Background Information on the Topic

A. General Suggestions

Only two to four class hours (1.5 to 3 clock hours) are allotted for this topic. Therefore, it is important to plan a "minimum" of demands so that students learn about the most important and up-to-date rules of funding schools in Poland. They should also understand the general philosophy that supports the belief that the responsibility for providing funds for education rests with the community at large.

The second problem concerns the activity and inventiveness of the school staff in raising money for school purposes. We suggest a practical activity that can help students to find an answer for the following question: Where and how can one find benefactors for school programs?

One should not expect a deep penetration of the issues during the time allotted for this topic. After all, many of the present regulations concerning school funding are in various phases of development and change. However, it is important for students to understand general tendencies in providing funds for education in a democratic country with an economy based on free market rules. It is also important for the students to realize that, in their future work as teachers, the ability to raise money for different school activities will be required.

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

The proposal presented below consists of two units of 1.5 clock hours each.

Unit 1

Funding Education in Poland

(1.5 clock hours)

This unit should be designed in a way that assists students in learning about the rules and regulations for educational funding. Also, students should consider the needs and priorities in this area. A detailed description of this lesson is provided in *Auxiliary Materials*.

Unit 2

Supplementary Funding for the School

(1.5 clock hours)

The students' task for this unit is to find possible sources of money for a school activity. They should write a letter to a potential donor. A suggestion for accomplishing this task is presented in *Auxiliary Materials*.

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

The basis for student assessment on this topic should be:

1. their participation in and contribution to discussions, and
2. a short essay (no more than 500 words) concerning the issue of funding education in a free market economy.

5. Readings for Students

Any articles from the newspapers concerning problems of the funding of the schools, means for solving those problems, etc.

J. Hebenstreit, *Czy państwo musi zarabiać na szkolnictwie niepublicznym?* [Must the State Make Money on Non-public School?], 'Społeczeństwo Otwarte' no. 3, Warszawa, 1993, p. 46-47.

Reforma edukacji w dobie kryzysu: przegląd edukacyjny [Reform of Education During the Time of Crisis: Educational Overview], 'The Economist', przełożyła i opracowała M. Kruczkowska, 'Społeczeństwo otwarte' no. 3, Warszawa, 1993, p. I-VIII.

J. Szczepański, *Szkoła i gospodarka* [School and the Economy], podrozdział 6 w rozdziale II, *Szkoła w społeczeństwie* ["School in society], (In:) K. Konarzewski, *Sztuka nauczania* [The Art of Teaching], t.II, *Szkoła* [School], PWN, Warszawa, 1991.

Ustawa o Systemie Oświaty oraz rozporządzenia RM i MEN dotyczące finansowania oświaty [Act on the Educational System and Decrees by the Council of Ministers and the Minister of Education that Concern the funding of Schools].

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

R.E. Campbell, L.L. Cunningham, R.O. Nystrand, M.D. Usdan, *The Organization and Control of American Schools*, Merrill Publishing Company, Columbus/Toronto/London/Melbourne, 1990 (wyd. szóste):

- Chapter 15, *Availability of Resources*, p. 286-406.

TOPIC VI: SCHOOL AS AN ORGANIZATION AND AS A COMMUNITY

1. Definition of the Topic

This topic deals with the exercising of democratic principles in the school as an organization. To some extent, the interplay between the educational system and society will be under consideration. However, the school will be the basic unit of analysis.

There is no direct and simple interrelationship between the state's political system and the "modus operandi" of its organizations. As a result, the school may or may not be democratic, even though it exists in a democratic society. Therefore, the operation of the school as an organization is an important issue.

Through the perspective of organizational theory, school is relatively simple system that is open and based upon direct interrelationships and that controls a decisive segment of the younger generation's life. School employs a group of relatively well educated people and is observed carefully by public opinion. Yet, school "as such" is a very complex and complicated organization.

Usually, school reflects the condition of the society. Societal transition to democracy is a great challenge for schools. On one hand, the school is under strong pressures to change. There is an expected correlation between the democratization of the society and democratization of the school.

On the other hand, procedures suitable for this transformation of the school are not well developed. Frequently, no one has a clear vision of what has to be done.

The first goal of this topic is to enrich future teachers' abilities to face the organizational reality of the school that is relevant to problems of democracy without complicating the issue with sophisticated theories. On this basis, it would be possible to develop student understanding of the democratic principles functioning in school. Also, students should be able to analyze critically the actual condition of school as such and draw conclusions about the possibility of school democratization. The second goal of this topic is to offer students the knowledge and skills necessary to exercise basic democratic procedures in a school setting.

School as an organization overlaps with the school as a special kind of community consisting of many people and several different groups. This overlap implies that all issues should be considered from two perspectives that are anchored to (a) the organizational side of school and (b) the social aspect of school.

2. Key Issues

1. How should school as an organization operate in a democratic society?
    a. What is the public opinion of school as an institution?

   b. What personal experience connected with democracy do prospective teachers associate with the educational institution?

   c. What do democratic principles mean in the real life of the school?

   d. Are democratic procedures used in the current operations of the school?

   e. Are there any limitations placed upon the exercising of democratic principles and procedures in the school?

2. Who influences the school in a democratic society?

   a. Is the school sensitive to the expectations of the public in a democratic society?

   b. Can bureaucracy "shape" the democratic process at school?

   c. Are the educational system and educational problems a "playground" for politicians?

   d. How do educational experts support the democratic process at school?

   e. Taking into account interrelationships between organizations, how can the democratic school operate in the broad organizational environment of society?

3. Can the democratic school be made effective?

   a. What are the benefits and costs of running the school in a democratic style?

   b. When does democracy interfere with effectiveness?

   c. In what way does the democratic process influence teacher motivation?

4. What does it really mean to exercise democratic leadership at school?

   a. What are the competencies of leadership for democracy?

   b. How can the student develop his/her personal leadership potential in a democratic context?

   c. What is the role of leadership in developing the democratic school?

3. Students Objectives

A. Knowledge Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. know the basic concepts for understanding the school as an organization in the context of democratic society;

b. understand these concepts in the context of school reality and the operation of the educational system;

c. consider the meaning of the basic principles and values of democracy within the educational system;

d. realize the nature and consequences of the influences of different social forces, organizations and institutions on the school; and

e. understand the connections between various phenomena of school life and the democratic process at school.

B. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. use analytical thinking skills in the organizational domain of education;

b. apply basic democratic procedures at the school; and

c. exercise democratic leadership in a school.

4. Background Information

A. General Suggestions

In comparison to the previous topics, this one is considerably more "theoretical." Taking into account that students do not posses an adequate knowledge of the psychology and sociology of organizations, the instructor should be cautious in the use of overly technical language and vaguely abstract concepts from this field. However, there is a method that is useful for establishing links between "abstract" knowledge and "concrete" school reality. This method is a case study, and we recommend it as a useful method for teaching this topic.

This topic can be accomplished in many different ways. The choice depends on student interests and instructor preferences resulting from his/her knowledge and experience (the important factor may be if he/she is an academic "theoretician" or "practitioner" who has managed school for many years).

The suggested guide for teaching the topic is intended to help prospective teachers in developing a sort of "organizational imagination" in the context of applying democratic principles to the organization of the school. This is why such concepts as organization, authority, effectiveness, group, and leader are addressed. We recommend that it is worth emphasizing these key concepts. However, they can be developed through means other than the ones proposed below.

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

For a variant of 14 class hours (10.5 clock hours), we propose five class units.

Unit 1

School as an Organization

(2.25 clock hours)

The goal of this unit is to help students to comprehend the multi-dimensionality of school organization. It will provide a background for succeeding problems and build frames of reference for sorting out experiences gained from the other topics.

This unit demands that students learn the most elementary concepts in the area of organization (see Argyle, M., in "5.

Readings for Students"). The first part of the class should be devoted to possible explanations and comments on these concepts. The instructor may wish to deliver a short auxiliary lecture on these elementary concepts.

After a conceptual framework has been developed, students can work on the characteristics of school as an organization through an "analogous circle" method. This method was described by E. Necka (see "6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor").

When summarizing this unit, it may be valuable to stress the roles played by a variety of informal factors (e.g., the influence of different groups and the personal qualities of various agents) involved in the functioning of the school as an organization.

Unit 2

The Power Structure of the School

(2.25 clock hours)

This unit is designed for students to build a sort of "map" of power and control over the school. It demands that the students consider the "play of interests" (including extension of influence and channels of influence) between the main actors of the school stage (teachers, students, parents) and the influence exerted on the school by such groups as educational experts, school administrators, politicians, and the public. These societal elements can be analyzed within the continuum that ranges from centralization to decentralization of the educational system. The main questions are: On this continuum, how is power shared with regard to the position of the school? What consequences can it have for school democratization? For instance, will subordination of schools to the community increase or decrease the influence of teachers (and other agents) on the functioning of the school? Which groups will support the development of democratic tendencies, and which ones will hamper them?

We suggest an approach to this unit that includes student deliberation on the case study of a real school. Material for the case study should be selected and developed by the instructor according to guidelines described in *Auxiliary Materials* ("Case Study"). Students may analyze the case in small teams. Every team will study the role of one of the above-mentioned groups and their influence on the school.

The second part of the class should be designated for the "synchronization" of the results of the students' deliberations and discussion on these deliberations. It is worthwhile to draw the students' attention to the links between democratization processes in school and in society.

Unit 3

Effectiveness and Democracy in the School

(2.25 clock hours)

The starting point for this unit can be a discussion that confronts two common and contradictory opinions. The first opinion claims that the unavoidable cost of democracy is poor organizational efficiency. According to the second opinion (which comes from the so called "stream of industrial democracy"), the only effective organization is a democratic organization. Discussion on these two beliefs can be supported with the ideas developed in the book by B. Kozusznik (see "5. Readings for Students").

An examination of the key problem for this topic (i.e., democracy in the school) can begin with a short lecture (10 - 15 minutes) by the instructor on "What does democratization of the school mean?" The instructor can base the lecture on ideas offered by Wirt and Kirst (see "6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor"). They define school democratization as a process of movement from the structure oriented toward hierarchy to a structure based on the team concept. During the discussion, it may be valuable to raise the issue of what school democratization is not and should not be. For instance, what are the potential consequences of a mechanical application of the political model of democracy to the school setting?

The next problem to discuss is the efficacy of the school. In small groups, students should establish criteria for school efficacy. Afterward, they should link these criteria to the different qualities of school democracy. When doing so, they may wish to refer to the previous case study. This possibility should be taken into account when preparing materials for the case study. Discussion should concern the possible interdependencies between school democratization and its effectiveness.

Unit 4

School as a Community

(1.5 clock hours)

Two questions seem to be important for this issue. Do school communities organized on the basis of democratic principles function better than others? Do democratic rules in the school work the same way for teachers and for students?

The impulse for discussion can come from real events, such as conflicts and cases of breaking or neglecting democratic rules in the school community. Students can prepare the necessary materials before the class by using articles in the daily or school press. As resource material, the instructor may want to recommend "Forum of the School Press" which is a supplement to the teachers' professional journal entitled "Open Society."

During this discussion, it may be useful to refer to problems that were subjects of deliberation during classes on other topics, such as the relation between the student and the teacher and student rights.

Unit 5

Leader as an Agent and Promoter of Democratic Changes in the School

(2.25 clock hours)

This unit concerns the problems of management and leadership in the school. Before class, students should become familiar with readings that help them differentiate these two modes of administering the school. The subject of a discussion can be a hypothesis (which is supported with empirical data) that states the following: Within democratic systems, the administration of the school develops toward leadership (see Wirt and Kirst in "6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor"). In a democratic organization, a school administrator changes from a bureaucrat to an educational leader. However, this posture demands the development of a school vision and good skills for communication with all parties interested and involved in the life of the school, such as students, teachers, and parents.

We propose to anchor the analysis of such problems to a case study entitled "The Experimental Riot." It is described in detail in *Auxiliary Materials.*

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

We propose to use two components for the assessment of student performance:

1. Participation in and contributions to class discussions, and
2. A short essay that may be based on a discussion of a selected problem related to the topic or the analysis of a real school situation.

5. Readings for Students

M. Argyle, *Grupy, organizacje i kultura* [Groups, Organizations and Culture] (In:) M. Argyle, *The Psychology of Interpersonal Behavior*, Penguin Books, New York 1983.

W. Ciczkowski, *Orientacja demokratyczna a propozycja zmian w szkole polskiej* [Democratic Approach and Proposal for Changes in Polish School] (In:) J. Griniewicz (Ed.), *Stare i nowe dylematy teorii wychowania* [Old and New Dilemmas of the Theory of Education], Wydawnictwo AM, Toruń, 1993.

J. Gęsicki, *Szanse decentralizacji oświaty* [Chances for the Decentralization of Education], 'Społeczeństwo otwarte' no. 1, 1993, p. 42-45.

D. Katz, R.L. Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, Wiley, New York, 1978:
- Chapter II, *Przywództwo* [Leadership].

W. Kozłowski, *Szkoła demokratyczna szkołą bezpieczną* [Democratic School as a Safe School], (In:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

B. Kożusznik, *Człowiek i zespół* [Individual and Collective], UŚ, Katowice, 1992.

H. Kwiatkowska, *Proces demokratyzacji szkoły (możliwości i zagrożenia)* [The Process of Democratization of School (Possibilities and Threats)], (In:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching About Democracy], CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

J. Radziewicz, *Szkoła demokracji, demokracja w szkole* [School for Democracy, Democracy in the School], (In:) J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka demokracji* [Teaching Democracy], CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

R. D. Behn, J.W. Vaupel, *Quick Analysis for Busy Decision Makers*, Basic Books, Ins. Publishers, 1992.

Z. Kwieciński, *Dynamika funkcjonowania szkoły* [Dynamics of the Functioning of School], PWN, Warszawa, 1990.

G. Morgan, *Images of Organization*, Sage Publications, Newbury Park, 1986.

E. Nęcka, *Trening Twórczości* [Creativity Training], Pracownia Wyd. PTP, Olsztyn, 1992.

J. Staniszkis, *Patologie struktur organizacyjnych* [The Pathology of Organizational Structure], Wrocław, 1992.

R.B. Woyach, *Preparing for Leadership: A Young Adult's Guide to Leadership skills in a Global Age*, Greenwood Press, (uwaga: istnieje polski przekład tej pracy przygotowany do druku przez MEN).

J.M. Wirt, M.W. Kirst, *Schools in Conflict*, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley CA, 1989.

TOPIC VII: THE ROLE OF SCHOOL IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

1. Definition of the Topic

The socio-political system of a society has educational consequences. The democratic system has educational consequences as well. The summary unit of this course should be a challenging, open opportunity for students to examine these consequences analytically and critically. The ideas that permeate this course are the basis and context for this analysis. Future teachers should be able to answer three core questions: (1) What is the role of school in a democratic society?; (2) What is the teacher's job?; and (3) What is the personal opportunity or possibility for teacher involvement in the process of school democratization?

Students should be invited to examine the most fundamental assumptions of the democratic school through the perspective of a democratic society. They should consider not only the values of education that differentiate democracy from other political systems, but also those that are universal and stand above all political value systems.

The teaching methods for this topic should be carefully selected so as to help students to make free judgments about problematic issues of school and education with a democratic perspective. Methods should be inquiry oriented and active.

The topic contains three tasks: (a) the development of student knowledge about the essential principles of democratic society, (b) the investigation of the school's role in a democratic system, and (c) building a more general competence in dealing with democratic tensions and problems. Accordingly, students should be able to use acquired knowledge and skills for analyzing and understanding the problems and issues that arise in school through the perspective of Polish society during its transition to democracy.

Many conceptualizations are possible concerning the role of school in a democratic system. For the goals of this course, we think that it is not appropriate to use complex scientific models. Instead, we propose to adopt, as a base, three school tasks that are connected specifically with problems of democracy. With this understanding, school is expected to:

1. make students familiar with diversity, ambiguity, and differences they will meet in the social world and to develop a sincere tolerance to that world;
2. provide students with the ability to exercise democratic procedures in a safe school environment; and
3. offer students some experience with educational issues indigenous to a nation in transition to democracy.

2.Key Issues

1. How does school reflect the democratic tensions of the society?
    a. What are the basic dilemmas of democratic society?
    b. What challenges of transition to democracy will confront future teachers?
    c. How can school help in the social reconstruction of democracy?

2. Can movement take place toward the democratic organization of schools?
   a. What role can democratic values play in the life of the school?
   b. What experience and traditions can teachers use to support democracy in Polish schools?
   c. How can the attractiveness of the democratic culture be created on the local market of ideas?
   d. How can teachers shape the democratic culture of the school community?
3. How can teachers initiate, reinforce, and support the process of democratization in Polish schools?
   a. What is the power of democracy with regard to social change, shaping visions, and gaining commitment?
   b. In what way can teachers participate in school policy making?

3. Student Objectives

I. Knowledge Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. understand and analyze the main principles of democracy;

b. recognize the factors counteractive to the process of democratization;

c. understand connections between democracy at school and democracy on the level of the society; and

II. Skill Objectives. Students should be able to:

a. analyze social phenomena through the perspective of democratic values;

b. make judgments that involve criteria relevant to different aspects of democracy;

c. approach problems from different directions, take sides, and advocate adopted positions;

d. synthesize materials from different sources and combine the skills in a particular context or situation; and

e. communicate the results of one's intellectual effort.

4. Background Information

A. General suggestions

As formulated in the definition of "The Role of Schools in a Democratic Society," this topic is an instrument for investigating connections between events in a democratic school and in a democratic society. By its nature, this topic is a summary of the entire course. Its main goals are to provide students with the possibility for reflection on what they have learned during the course and to provide them an opportunity to demonstrate acquired competencies with full respect for the autonomy of theirs beliefs and values.

The way to proceed with this topic does not depend exclusively on a prescribed model. It depends on how much, according to the instructor's opinion, was achieved up to this point in the course. In the instructor's opinion, if students were engaged enough and the quality of their work was evaluated as satisfactory, it is worthwhile to allow them the possibility for independent elaboration of the problem or dilemma important for the issue of democracy in the context of the Polish educational system. In this case, we propose the assignment of six school hours for a student symposium on "School in a Democratic Society." The details of this proposal are included in *Auxiliary Materials*.

If there are reasons to assume that students will not be able to manage this task, we recommend a summary of the course on the basis of selected problems that will lead students to some generalizations and syntheses. With this alternate situation in mind, an exemplary guide for teaching this topic is presented below.

As a key concept for the organization of student inquiry, we propose the notion of the "democratic culture of the school." This phenomenon can be characterized on three levels: (1) basic assumptions, such as values, symbols, and myths; (2) steering structures - goals and rules; and (3) methods for realizing the democratic culture of the school (adopted strategies and procedures).

B. Procedural Guide for Teaching the Topic

We propose the division of six class hours (4.5 clock hours) into two units of 2.25 clock hours each.

Unit 1

Freedom of Information Exchange as a Foundation of Democracy

(2.25 clock hours)

The goal of this unit is for students to investigate the consequences of circulating and controlling information within the school for development of a democratic school culture.

At the beginning of the class, the role of free flow of information on every step of social organization should be stressed. Ideas presented in the article "Democracy and Mass

Media (see "5. Readings for Students") can act as the catalyst for this discussion. The initial question is: What does freedom of the mass media mean for a permanent process of solving fundamental tensions in a democratic society?

The next step is to move the discussion to the school level. Ask students if the following analogy is valid: "Free access to information and its unconstrained flow is as much a necessary condition for the development of a democratic school culture as is freedom of mass media for a country."

Next, students may work on establishing critical spots and barriers for the free flow of information within a school. For this task, the practical activity entitled "On the School Principal's Desk" can be introduced. To prepare this activity, the instructor should collect a variety of materials that often reach the desk of the school principal. These items may concern teachers, student and parental affairs, problems of management, and financial questions. The students' task is to predict which of these materials will probably be accessible for various groups within the school community and which will not. Why? What may be the consequences of this situation?

Later, a "brain storming" session may be organized on the following issue: How can barriers to the flow of information in the school be eliminated? During the summary of the unit, it may be worthwhile to stress the role of socialization in the school community with respect to the use of information for the processes of societal democratization as a whole. Also, students may be asked to prepare a short essay on a specific problem in this area. The following question can act as an example: What are the consequences of limiting student access to information on student rights?

Unit 2

Dilemmas of Democracy in School

(2.25 clock hours)

The foundation for this unit is the argument that democracy is a system in which the permanent process of negotiation is taking place between conflicting democratic values, such as justice vs. freedom, equality vs. differentiation, and authority vs. the privacy of the individual. Students should have an opportunity to realize how conflicts of this type may appear in the school and how they may be solved.

In approaching this unit, one may utilize experiences that students have collected during the course. After a description of the problem by the instructor, students in small groups may prepare their own vision of the "Dilemmas of Democracy in School" through a mini-simulation, a role playing exercise, a case study, or any other method they have learned throughout this course. Whatever their choice, the process of and conclusions from this exercise can be used as the basis for a plenary discussion.

C. Evaluation of Student Performance

During the preceding classes, the instructor was able to collect enough information to asses student performance.

Therefore, for this last topic, we propose that students evaluate each other for "extra credit." The possible criteria for this evaluation should be discussed in advance. The instructor must stress that the evaluation can not concern the beliefs and values displayed by others. It has to be an evaluation of the quality, not the content, of the activities under evaluation.

5. Readings for Students

At the time we were completing work on our project, one could notice in Poland an explicit inflow of readings that may be useful for this course. Therefore, readings we propose may be treated as one of many options and selected rather arbitrarily. The instructor, together with the students, should decide which of them should be obligatory and which should be supplementary to this course.

Czym jest demokracja? [What is Democracy?], United States Information Agency, 1991.

A.V. Finn, *Elements of Democracy. An Adult Reader*, Washington, 1992.

M. Król, *Słownik demokracji* [The Dictionary of Democracy], 'Res Publica', Warszawa, 1990.

W.T. Kulesza, P. Winczorek, *Demokracja u schyłku XX wieku* [Democracy at the End of the Twentieth Century], WSiP, Warszawa, 1992.

B. Markiewicz (Ed.), *Obywatel. Odrodzenie pojęcia* [The Citizen. Revitalization of the Concept], IFiS PAN, Warszawa, 1993.

J. Pluta, E. Stawowy, S. Wilkanowicz, *Demokracja dla wszystkich* [Democracy for Everybody], Znak, 1993:
    T. Goban-Klas, *Demokracja a mass media*. [Democracy and Mass Media]

J. Radziewicz (Ed.), *Nauka Demokracji* [Teaching Democracy, CODN, Warszawa, 1992.

A. Rzepliński (Ed.), *Prawa i wolności człowieka* [Rights and Freedoms of the Individual], CODN, Warszawa, 1993.

J, Szczupaczyński (Ed.), *Elity, demokracja, wybory* [Elites, Democracy, Elections], Agencja Scholar, Warszawa, 1993.

6. Supplementary Readings for the Instructor

W.T. Callahan Jr., R.A. Banaszak, *Citizenship for the 21 Century*, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1990: R.F. Butts, *Democratic Values: What the Schools Should Teach*.

E. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey Bass, San Francisco, 1985.

A. de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America*, The New American Library, New York, 1956.

F.M. Wirt, M.W. Kirst, *Schools in Conflict*, McCutchan, Berkeley CA, 1989.

As additional supplementary readings, we suggest books and articles that were used by the authors of the course for establishing its rationale (see pp. 15-16).

Auxiliary Materials

for

The School in Democratic Society:

A Course Plan for Poland's Future Teachers

by

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INTRODUCTION

Auxiliary Materials consists of two parts. The first part includes basic information on some of the most important practical methods of teaching. They are simulation, role playing, and the case study. The main source of information for this part was *Practical Methods for the Social Studies* (1977), written by a team under the leadership of M. E. Gilliom, a professor at the Ohio State University College of Education, USA. This book is a compendium of the authors' most successful experiences in the use of practical teaching methods for American education.

The applicability of these methods is highlighted by the use of simulations. According to recent data, one can find about 700 educational simulations of various kinds on the American market. They are intended for use by teachers in both elementary and high school classes. Also, practical methods are employed for teaching adults. Competence in developing simulations is an important goal in American teacher education.

The second part of *Auxiliary Materials* provides exemplary lesson scenarios that employ the methods noted in part one. They do not constitute an obligatory model for teaching the course topics. They should act as a variety of possible ideas that can be handled creatively by the teacher to solve problems of planning the course. Any modifications that serve this propose should be introduced. When using the scenarios presented in part two, one should remember that every method is "good" only to the extent that it supports effective learning. To achieve this goal, the example scenarios can be revised and improved.

Student attitudes toward particular methods are also very important factors. Only if they feel positively about the methods, and if they will be ready to put energy into learning and teaching each other, can the lessons be successful. Therefore, we suggest that the students read *Auxiliary Materials* before the course begins.

PART I:

SELECTED

PRACTICAL METHODS OF TEACHING

SIMULATION

1. General information

Simulation is a technique that allows the group to gather experiences similar to those in real social life. Participation in a simulation draws students into the subject matter and activates the process of deduction. The longest tradition in simulations belongs to the military and business sectors. A recent trend is evident in the use of computerized simulations. Nevertheless, simulations can be developed for any events and situations without the need for expensive materials. Use of the simulation depends more on the author's inventiveness than on the amount of money expended.

In the references on this technique, one can find many different conceptualizations of the term "simulation." However, problems of definition do not result from the novelty of the technique. They are a consequence of the numerous ways of utilizing the simulation in an educational setting. Such terms as simulation, role playing, social simulation, educational games, and simulation games are frequently interchangeable. However, it is important to delimit these terms in order to avoid confusion on the "types" of simulations that can be used in the classroom.

A. Simulation

In general, the term "simulation" can be defined as an operational model of physical phenomena or social processes. It is an artificial form of reality simplified for the purpose of analysis. A simulation can disclose the physical nature of phenomena, and it can be used for demonstration of the processes of adaptation or the efforts for transformation of these physical processes. A good example of such a simulation is the anti-gravitation chamber used for the training of astronauts.

Simulations can also demonstrate the course of social processes, the nature of human interactions, and social interdependency. The following are some examples of this category of simulations:

- decision making during which an employer and the employees have to reach an agreement on important economic dilemmas,
- eliminating misunderstanding between people of different cultural backgrounds,
- developing strategies aimed at winning a political election,
- resolving conflict between teachers and students in the average school situation.

A simulation can be defined as either a miniature representation of social reality or as a model of the process of interaction, both of which are the subject of analysis. In general, simulations that are used in the education of children and adolescents present typical social relations that comprise defined aims and assumptions. In addition, they include sequences of events determined by the roles of the participants. A different form of simulation utilized within a school setting is a computer simulation. Due to specific attributes of the "man-machine" relationship, these simulations can be helpful for individualizing the teaching process and for expanding student access to information.

B. Role Playing

Procedures for role playing and suggestions for its utilization are presented later in *Auxiliary Materials*.

C. Social Simulation

A social simulation is an operational model of the various components of social reality. In general, it emphasizes the characteristics of interaction processes in decision making and conflict resolution. Social simulations help in learning effective methods of achieving defined goals. During a social stimulation, competition is kept at a minimal level. Absence of winners and losers is an attribute that differentiates a social simulation from simulation games and educational games. The goals of a social simulation are primarily those of supporting (a) the students' cooperative skills, (b) their proficiency in negotiation, and (c) their ability to reach a compromise.

D. Educational Games

Educational games are based intentionally on competition delineated by specific rules and the participants' roles. They are linked less to social phenomena than simulations. Mostly, educational games demand tables of results for recording achievements of the competing participants. Success in educational games depends on many circumstances. They include the skills needed for playing games and the willingness to take a risk. Many games of this category are useful means for practicing valuable skills and concepts in history, geography, economics, and law. These games are addressed to the natural human disposition for competition, and they generate strong interest and involvement. A quite popular game of this type is *Monopoly*. Educational games are worthwhile because of their motivational value. However, one should not confuse them with simulations.

E. Simulation Games

This type of game combines the features of both social simulations and educational games. Simulation games represent situations for which competition is an inseparable element of the social process. Whereas educational games highlight competition as an aim unto itself, competition in simulation games is introduced so that participants comprehend the mechanisms of social rivalry and its motives and consequences. Under specific circumstances and depending on the patterns of the participants behavior, winners and losers can emerge. Their success and failure, however, result from situational causes. Teachers who use active teaching methods claim that the competitive character of simulation games is a meaningful factor that motivates students for participation in games and for solving problems analogous to those found in real life.

2. Using Simulations

A. Preparation of the Group

If we want to begin inquiry into a given problem through a simulation, it is important to find out if the group members are experienced enough to investigate the process that is the subject for the simulation. It is valuable to prepare in advance and discuss with students additional texts that will activate their motivation for preliminary investigation of the problem. This preparation will allow them to sense the climate of the social relations in a given place and time and provide them with primary concepts. Of course, the simulation can be a natural and logical consequence of class discussion. Simulation will help students to examine problems under consideration from different perspectives. One should remember, however, that this type of teaching method produces very specific participant interest with regard to a given problem. Therefore, it is important for a teacher to realize the level of student preparation for active participation in a specific simulation.

At the initial phase of a simulation, the teacher's task is to explain briefly the character of the roles and to outline the structure of the situation and sequence(s) of events. However, it is not useful to become absorbed in too many details when explaining the roles. Rather, one should let the simulation begin as quickly as possible because many doubts will be solved during and through its process.

The responsibility of the teacher is to prepare materials consisting of descriptions of the situation and roles. The participants can cooperate by preparing such things as a place for the simulation and the necessary accessories. In some sense, a simulation can be compared to the preparation of a stage play. The main difference is that the simulation's participants create unique scenarios of events on the basis of their personal experiences.

In summary, it is important to emphasize that the person carrying out the simulation should:

- know if the students' life experiences are rich enough for analyzing the process that frames the subject of the simulation;
- assess adequately the possibility of the students to learn and their willingness to learn with practical, active methods of teaching;
- avoid too extensive an introduction to the simulation; and
- be prepared properly for carrying out the simulation.

After the necessary preparation and after introducing participants to the situation, the simulation can begin.

B. Supervising a Simulation

In the case of a simulation prepared by someone else, effective supervision requires detailed familiarization with the roles and procedures. This familiarization will help in dealing with the doubts of participants and conflicts that can occur during the process. One should be flexible and creative since it is impossible to predict all problems and to anticipate all solutions. Basically, the teacher's activities during supervision include: (a) exercising control over the time allotted for a specific game or simulation, (b) observing the development of the action, and (c) providing participants with further instructions. It is important, though, that the teacher not be concerned to the point of over-intervention and domination.

C. Debriefing the Simulation

Experts in active teaching methods agree that the main effects from using these methods are those accomplished by participants in the last phase -- namely, summary and discussion. At this stage, participants have the opportunity to analyze what has transpired in order to make comparisons based on the perspective of their personal experiences and the behavior of others. Simulations also provide the opportunity to generate hypotheses concerning the possible reasons and consequences of human behavior under similar circumstances and in similar situations.

For the teacher to engage the class in effective summarizing and debriefing of a simulation, R. Stadsklev (see Gilliom, 1977, p. 112-113 in "References") suggests an experimental model known as EIAG (Experience, Identify, Analyze, Generalize). The following steps are recommended:

1. **Experience** - Of course, this phase precedes any summary, but it is important to realize in advance the answers for some important questions: What was the reason for simulating this specific problem? Will this simulation teach participants to make decisions? To what extent is this particular episode a simulation of the real life

experiences of the participants? Will it help them to do better in their environment? What other goals can be achieved through this method?

2. **Identify** - At this stage, the teacher should identify what he/she wants to emphasize during the lesson summary: What facts? What is the symbolic meaning of the simulation? What feelings were disclosed, and what were the reactions? The following are examples of questions that can be used with participants during discussion: What example of real life was simulated? When did you feel good or bad during the simulation? What was the most important experience for you? To what factors do you attribute your low/high scores? What did you feel when . . . ? What did you say when . . . ? How did your partner react to your behavior?

3. **Analyze** - The teacher must be aware of the subject for analysis during his/her discussion with the students. What were the outcomes of the simulation? What were the relationships between causes and consequences? What were some alternative decisions and other effective strategies? Exemplary questions that can encourage participants to engage in analysis include: What was the nature of the problems with which you had to deal? To what extent were you involved in resolving them? What events, behaviors, strategies were decisive in obtaining your outcomes? What contributed to the feelings and attitudes that developed?

4. **Generalize** - The main point here is a reflection on what the participants have learned from the perspective of the preliminary assumptions noted in the first point. The following activities can help students to generalize:

   - an overview of certain roles, events, and interactions that led to specific conclusions (be concrete);
   - a comparison between the effects of the simulation and events that, in the opinions of participants, would occur in real life; and
   - an investigation of data from similar real life situations that can confirm or reject the conclusions made from the simulation.

The teacher must assume a more involved role in the summary session than in the simulation itself. The teacher should remember, however, that even at this stage his/her role is primarily one of support for students when they analyze and evaluate their behavior and their decisions.

3. The Role of the Teacher in an Effective Simulation

To some extent, the degree to which a simulation can become an effective method of teaching depends on the teacher's knowledge and beliefs about his/her role in the process of teaching. If the teacher thinks that a simulation is a sort of "break" from more serious study, it is very likely that his/her students will develop the same attitude.

When the teacher employs a simulation with the intentions of expanding the students' knowledge, helping them to participate actively in the processes of conflict resolution, and making decisions, the possibility that they will be positive about this type of teaching method will increase. On the other hand, if the teacher considers his/her role as a person who is responsible for perfect order and who is ready to provide "ultimate truths", simulations have a minimal chance to succeed. This situation results because simulations, by their very nature, escalate interactions of a different kind and produce some "disorder." This price must be paid for introducing the class to the engaging group technique of simulation.

It also bears mentioning that although the position of the teacher during a simulation is not very central, it does not mean a loss of his/her authority. He/she is supposed be an advisor and supporter as opposed to a leader. Yet, one must stress that a very important task faced by the teacher during all phases of a simulation involves maintenance of both the physical and the psychological safety of the students.

Nevertheless, if the teacher decides, with deep conviction, to use a simulation he/she should restrain him/herself from the temptation to:

- offer a better strategy than the one chosen by a student,
- correct the manner in which students develop their roles,
- check constantly if students understand their roles fully, and
- maintain order at any price.

Finally, it is worth considering some of the confining factors of simulations. This type of method can consume a large amount of time (two to three class periods). In lieu of this consideration, it is useful to have all instructions and descriptions copied in advance and, when possible, to organize work in sub-groups. Preparation of the materials requires some capital expenditure (e.g., copying or buying games and simulations if and when the market for these teaching materials develops). Management competencies of the teacher are also important; an effective simulation needs precise planning that respects the specifics of the group and of the situation.

4. Summary

The literature on this subject describes simulations as "student oriented teaching." As an active method of teaching, simulations have gained many adherents among teachers who have adapted its innovative character. In this chapter, we attempted to present the terminology, some rules for carrying out a simulation, and the benefits of using simulations. In educational practice, however, simulations must be used thoughtfully. The content and form of specific simulations should be selected with a sensitivity toward student interests and abilities, as well as the classroom environment in which they are used (elementary school, high school, university). In concluding our discussion on simulations, it is important to stress that this method:

- creates strong motivation;
- requires active participation;
- increases empathy;
- reinforces the comprehension of content;
- teaches the rules of group processes and group dynamics;
- approaches social reality;
- develops inquiry skills for gathering information, making inferences, and verifying data; and
- assumes the ability to be flexible and to adapt.

5. References

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ROLE PLAYING

1. General Information

Role playing is often characterized as an instrument that facilitates the practice of social competencies, such as negotiating, decision making, and communicating. The educational aspect of role playing is pointed out in the educational literature (see "3. References": Czapów & Czapów, 1969).

Role playing is considered to be a method for introducing students to different social roles. Mostly, this process takes place when situations involving specific problems of social life and moral dilemmas (e.g., intolerance and deception) are simulated. Therefore, the goal of role playing as a teaching method is not only to practice competencies, but also to induce a discussion that allows identification of the effective and ineffective patterns of behavior under given circumstances.

Generally, the outcomes of role playing are not defined in advance. In addition, the situation that is simulated can not be repeated in its original version. Instruction provides only the preliminary information. The individuals who play the different roles determine the sequence of events and the process of their presentation. Together with a short description of a situation and elementary assumptions on the course of events, instruction defines only the beginning and the general frame for action. The task of the psychodrama participants is to imagine and to behave as if they were in an analogous, real life situation.

To be a good actor is not important, but the person who plays a specific role should accept initially the general characteristics of the given figure. He/she should know the motives that lead the behavior of the assigned character and understand the background of the situation. It is worthwhile if the "actors" let their attitudes, reactions, and feelings change with the circumstances and dynamics of the presented events. In a group setting, role playing can cause unexpected changes in behavior and attitudes and provoke emotional disclosure that is impossible to predict at the start of a psychodrama.

It is worth noting the following aspects of role playing:

1. Teaching effectiveness and scope of learning depend mostly on role authenticity.
2. Because it simulates real life events, role playing creates an opportunity to experiment with new behavioral patterns without major emotional costs and without the anxiety of serious repercussions.

One should recommend that persons who play roles do not follow the instructions compulsively, but behave according to the following guideline: be yourself and act in the most natural way. During the activity, participants wear tags with names of the characters they are impersonating. The function of the tags is to provide actors with a sense of security. In any case, after the role play and before discussion has begun, participants should be reminded to remove the tags and "exit the role."

The tasks of the teacher are: (a) to prepare the participants for their roles, (b) to explain the function of the tags, and (c) to prepare the rest of the group for observation.

There is also the possibility to employ the entire group by arranging simultaneous role playing exercises in sub-groups. In the literature on active teaching methods, Shaftel and Shaftel (1967), on the basis of their observations, provided a series of samples that show the ways in which a teacher can activate a group for taking part in a role playing exercise. Cited in Gilliom (1977; p. 75), they described nine successive, procedural phases for role playing:

1. Preliminary activity - warm up. This phase consists of a short introduction by the teacher to explain the selected subject and the means of its presentation. The conflict or moral dilemma are presented for the whole group (in written, oral, or video form) up to the moment when a decision needs to be made. The teacher can use different questions to motivate the group for spontaneous participation in the dramatization: "What, according to your opinion, should or can the main character do? I am sure that every one of you was once engaged in a similar situation. What were your thoughts under similar circumstances?

2. The assignment of roles - The most favorable situation is when an individual expresses his/her willingness to play a specific role. In the case that the student was designated by the teacher, he/she should be entitled to withdraw, especially if he/she feels that participation in the role play can be disturbing for him/her, or if he/she thinks that identification with a given character will be difficult for him/her to enact.

3. Preparation of the group for observation - At this stage, the task of the teacher is to assign tasks to the observers. Observers should be prepared for the evaluation of such aspects of the psychodrama as authenticity of the different roles played by individual actors. Also, they should be ready to recognize the feelings of the different characters in the course of events.

4. Stage Preparation - The teacher, together with group members, must arrange the stage. Setting the stage may demand that a few simple accessories be employed.

5. Role playing - It may be useful to stress again that participants will not be evaluated on their theatrical skills. The primary goal of the role play is to achieve a deeper understanding of the motives of behavior and of the emotions and values of others.

6. Discussion and evaluation - The teacher moderates the discussion on what happened, to what extent the roles displayed were authentic, if the outcomes that occurred during the psychodrama could happen in real life situations, and any other pertinent aspects of the role playing exercise that he/she or the students find important.

7. Further dramatization - Considering the conclusions drawn from the previous discussion, this phase provides an opportunity to repeat the role play. There is also the option to exchange roles and reenact the drama.

8. Further discussion - Together with the participants, the teacher analyzes the changes that have been observed during the course of the action and any new results.

9. Generalization - At this stage, the teacher asks the students about their observations, feelings, and conclusions. To open the summary procedure, he/she can ask a few questions. For instance: Why did characters portrayed in the psychodrama react in the manner displayed? It depends on the innovation and experience of the teacher to introduce more developed procedures for role playing.

2. Using Role Playing

As an active teaching method, role playing consists of four important phases:

1. preparation (undertaken by the teacher prior to class),
2. introduction,
3. role playing, and
4. discussion.

A. Steps for Preparation

Step 1. The purpose should be defined and an appropriate rationale should be developed to justify the implementation of the role playing method in a given case.

Step 2. During the process of scenario preparation, one should establish the number of roles and decide how many group members can participate (including observers). Special consideration should be given to whether or not the roles are adequate to the potential and interests of students.

Step 3. If the exercise is not limited in roles and permits additional characters to enter the psychodrama, it can be useful to:

- develop a likely story;
- define the problem and tasks new players have to address in a given situation;
- define the number of possible new characters and determine if observers will be necessary;
- prepare specific roles for the individual characters. These descriptions can consist of two or three sentences or can be more elaborate portraits. The following questions may help in guiding your thoughts: Who is this person? What are his/her distinctive features? What motivated him/her to behave in a specific way? What does he/she feel in the given situation? What is his/her problem? What are his/her attitudes toward other people in the given situation?

Step 4. The role playing exercise should be succinct and not overly involved. The teacher should predetermine the amount of time necessary for both the play and its analysis. Should it be a single role play in the presence of other group members? Or, should it be simultaneous role playing by different sub-groups?

Step 5. The list of discussion questions and conceptualization of the discussion that is planned for debriefing the psychodrama should be prepared in advance. Of course, the discussion need not follow the prescribed path if more pertinent "teachable moments" emerge during the debriefing discussion.

B. Introduction the Role Play

Step 1. The participants should be informed of the goal of the psychodrama.

Step 2. The general characteristics of the situation and a general description of the roles should be presented.

Step 3. The actors for specific roles should be appointed. When linking a person to a role, one must be careful. For instance, a person should not play a role that may reflect the real problems of this person. Actors should be given tags on which the names of their character is printed. The tags will facilitate differentiation of the actor from his/her role during the summary discussion and debriefing.

Step 4. The teacher should consider the amount of time necessary for reading and comprehending the roles and for enacting the psychodrama. In the case of active teaching methods, though, flexibility and preparation can prevent an imbalance of time for less essential elements and a proper amount of time for the necessities. In any case, be prepared to make decisions concerning time allotment throughout the unfolding of any active teaching method.

Step 5. If there is an audience, their tasks should be defined. The role of the audience should be explained in detail so as to avoid unconcern and confusion. The use of an "advanced organizer" may assist in this step. An advanced organizer can be a set of questions that the teacher hands out to the students in advance of the role play. During the role playing exercise, the observers note their thoughts with respect to the questions, thereby keeping them focused on some important issues that may be lost in the course of the psychodrama and difficult to retrieve during discussion.

Step 6. The scene should be set and a short introduction to the situation should be outlined.

Be careful! A lot of problems connected to the implementation of a psychodrama can be avoided by a well-prepared and detailed introduction.

C. Observation and Monitoring

Step 1. The beginning of the psychodrama should be indicated clearly.

Step 2. The teacher should keep a neutral posture when observing the roles presented by the individual actors. He/she should observe in silence.

Step 3. The teacher should advise and intervene only if it is absolutely necessary. Intervention may take place if actors get lost and are not able to correct the situation by themselves. If a situation of this sort occurs, comments should be short and meaningful.

Step 4. If at the predetermined time the situation does not appear to be approaching its natural end, the teacher has to interrupt in a subtle way. Even if the interaction lasted for but a few minutes, it can yield a lot of data for discussion.

Step 5. When thanking the participants in the role play, the teacher should use the real names of the students. In doing so, it will provide a natural transition from the play to the discussion.

D. The Discussion after Role Playing

Step 1. The teacher should remind participants to take off their name tags. In general, the actors should speak first. If the role playing exercise dealt with a conflict situation, the person who was responsible for a solution should speak first. The second speaker should be the person "who had the problem."

Step 2. When the observers and audience enter the discussion, the motivational questions should concern their opinions on what determined the development of the situation and the ways in which the actors performed their roles.

Step 3. During the discussion, the teacher has to accentuate the meaning of the actors and the observers' feelings. Also, he/she should emphasize that there is no need to concentrate on a detailed analysis of the individual actors' actions.

Step 4. The teacher should summarize the prevailing interpretations of the problem that have been formulated by the group during the discussion. They should be linked to the assumed goal of the psychodrama. The teacher should search for student answers to the following questions: To what extent did the dramatization inspire a better understanding of the problem? To what extent did the dramatization assist you in formulating an equitable solution to the problem?

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THE CASE STUDY

"Case study" is a general term for the systematic description and rational analysis of a separate and distinct unit (e.g., person, group, institution, object, event, situation, or process) that emerges in a natural context and in a specified time period. Broadly defined, case studies are widespread in law, medicine, and the behavioral sciences.

1. General Information

A case study may be used for three different proposes: qualitative scientific research, a means for social change, and a teaching method. For our purposes, the last application is relevant. We will refer, however, to the other two applications for comparison or additional information.

As a teaching method, the case study has a long history. This is particularly true in areas of education where students have to comprehend objects, processes, and events that are both unique and complex at the same time. One should not be surprised that the classic domain of the case study is medicine, especially pathology. Deliberations on war and political events are also a traditional sphere for the use of case studies. Events that concern phenomena of great instructional value in its pure, nearly ideal form, become the groundwork of classic, paradigmatic studies. For two thousand years, staff officers have studied the case of the Battle of Cannas fought by Hannibal in 216 B.C.

Public reaction to Orson Wells' 1938 radio version of *War of the Worlds* is still a useful case for people who study mass media. Many problems and phenomena that occur in an educational system can also be characterized as unique and complex. Hence, the case study is functional for teaching issues that deal with problems concerning the democratization of the Polish educational system.

2. Types of Case Studies

This method is very pervasive in describing objects and phenomena of various natures. The subject for a case study can be anything that is interesting, even if only a minimum of the necessary information is known. Depending on the character of the material that we are using and on the relevant manner of its presentation, one can catalogue several major types of case studies.

We refer to the typology proposed by M. Eugene Gilliom (1977) because this typology was elaborated in the context of the problems in which we are interested. Gilliom delimited nine fundamental types of cases: open-ended episodes, interpretive essays, cases based on documents, eyewitness accounts, court cases, narratives, memoirs, chronicles, and vignettes. An explanation of each type of case study follows.

a. **Open-ended episodes.** This is a case that does not have a definite solution. Students have to predict the development of events and plausible consequences of different actions and decisions. In other words, what is demanded here is "to close" the situation as the result of credible reasoning.

b. **Interpretive Essays.** The main characteristic of this type of case is its tendentiousness and frequent manipulation of information (e.g., newspaper articles). These cases are used to demonstrate to learners the techniques that others adopt to influence our thinking and to show students the degree to which interpretation of facts depends on the frame into which they are placed.

c. **Cases based on documents.** This type of case study prevails in scientific analyses. A variety of different documents can be used: documents created by organizations (e.g., reports, conclusions, statements), scientific reports, letters, memoranda, bulletins, protocols, schemes, and orders. (see Yin, 1984, in "References" section).

d. **Memoirs.** Memoirs consist of an up-to-date and systematic registration of events, facts, and decisions. Usually, they include evaluations, expectations, and interpretations by the author. Memoirs can be a rich source for classifying the attitudes, choices, and decisions of the author.

e. **Chronicle.** A chronicle is a formal, chronological, day-by-day recording of events, facts, and decisions. Frequently, it creates the possibility to reconstruct events and to draw conclusions about possible causal relationships. In certain cases, the documents assume a form of chronicle (e.g., log books and flight logs).

f. **Eyewitness accounts.** These cases are short texts written after the fact. Depending on the level of involvement and the position occupied by the author, they can be based on facts of a different kind. They are, nevertheless, the indications of climate and, often, the only source of detailed information. They differ from diaries because of the position of the author with respect to the described event. By definition, witnesses are "external" to the event.

g. **Court cases.** The core of these cases is made up of court sentences and decisions around which evidence is built. This case study model is very popular in the United States. Part of the reason is the number of legal cases that involve educational issues. However, such cases will begin to appear in Poland because of the increasing role of law in areas such as children's rights or controversies between teachers and their employers.

h. **Narratives.** A case study should be based on authentic facts. However, there are many writings known as "fact literature" where only the fundamental substance is authentic. The characters or details may be fictional. Often, this category of cases can be very useful and inspiring. Nevertheless, one should be aware of their "fictional" character.

i. **Vignettes.** These cases are descriptions of episodes or individual characters and do not aspire to exhaust the subject. They may be very dramatic and may facilitate concentration on the most important aspects of the phenomena in which one is interested.

3. Using Case Studies

A. Preparation of the Case

Commercially prepared case studies are common in countries with a long and rich tradition in this active teaching method. In our educational system, this work must be done by the teacher. This situation is difficult, but it has some advantages as well. One can prepare a study that is fully suitable for his/her needs. In addition, the author knows his/her own product the best.

It is worthwhile to note the difference between the author of the case study material and the author of the case itself. These people may be one in the same, but this is not necessarily so. The material may be the product of a journalist, scientist, or archivist. The material may differ in scope and size. Case studies may be based on a small amount of homogeneous information (e.g., the record of a teaching staff meeting), but it may include a lot of different materials (e.g., documents plus reports plus a collection of letters) that concern the same issue and that are part of the same study.

There may be various ways to display the material. Material may be presented in the form of a written text, film, recording, map, or schema. These rich possibilities create some problems that we will discuss below, but they also can yield high rewards.

There are three phases in the process of case study preparation for educational purposes: (1) definition of the goals of the study, (2) selection of materials, and (3) preparation for discussing the case study.

Step 1. Apparently, to define the case study's purpose seems uncomplicated. However, one should realize accurately what is to be achieved on the level of:

- problems and information,
- students' experience, and
- skills and competencies.

The purpose should be defined precisely. The teacher should answer the following questions: What do I want to teach the students?; Do I want to show them the complexity of some phenomena or processes (e.g., societal expectations of the school in a democracy)?; or, dynamics of the phenomenon (e.g., the development and escalation of conflict)?; or, the strategy of behavior in difficult situations? Only if a purpose is well articulated can we seek a case that will help us to achieve our purpose. Usually, the case is only a segment of a more elaborate sequence of activities that lead to the realization of complex goals. Beginning with a case that is already developed and "fitting" our goals to that case is not a worthwhile endeavor.

Often, using a case study is time consuming. Therefore, it is worthwhile to set priorities or to concentrate on one goal from each of the above-mentioned levels, even though the emphasis on individual goals may differ.

Considering that our task is to organize the student's experience, we should not approach it too narrowly. Cases usually heighten student emotions, generate moods, and arouse motivation. One of the fundamental questions is: To what extent is the content of the case similar to the content of other cases that students know?; or, How can the student use the lesson he/she draws from a particular case?. The development of competencies for which case studies are best suited is discussed below.

Step 2. In situations where a case study serves as a research method, or when it is used for educational purposes, we face the problem of selecting the most appropriate materials. Aside from the conditions defined earlier (i.e., the usefulness of the case for the goal of the lesson), case study material should fulfil the following requirements:

a. The information included in a case study should be within the reach of students enough so as to stimulate them and provide them with the possibility to operate on a more complex level. If the information is too complex, it can muddle the significant substance of the problem. In this case, students may concentrate their attention on secondary details, and too many explanations may be necessary. However, if a goal of the activity is the development of skills for sorting, evaluating, and structuring information, the material should be more complex. For these reasons, flexibility is required.

b. The level of complexity of the case should reflect the students' capabilities and their familiarity with the use of the case study method. We do not recommend confronting novices with a very multi-faceted case that, for example, consists of many complex problems and requires quantitative analysis. A good case should be connected to experiences the students already possess.

c. Material should be presented in a form that is convenient for individual or group work. It should be presented in clear and balanced language. In more complex cases, auxiliary materials and equipment such as graphs, schemes, maps, and pictures are needed.

We may learn about or experience a real and very interesting case that is useful in educating for democracy. In this situation, we should write the case study ourselves. This experience appears indispensable for those who are serious about using case studies as a teaching method. As is the case with other active teaching methods, selection of material requires practice and experience.

Step 3. There are various points to consider when preparing for the discussion of a case study. Even if the case is well selected and prepared, it may turn out to be a 'blind alley' if not discussed properly. In helping students to benefit from this method, discussion is a key issue. Gilliom (1977) suggests the preparation of a sequence of questions based on the following points:

- explanation (clarification) and definition of key and unclear terms;
- explanation of the described happenings (facts, processes);
- relevant evaluations and judgements;
- implications (outcomes, consequences) of the phenomena presented in the study; and
- application (utilization) of the conclusions, suggestions, and points of view under different circumstances.

B. Applying a Case Study in the Classroom

When considering the use of a case study in class, the following issues seem to be meaningful: (a) the organization of the lesson, (b) its dynamics and structure, and (c) the role of the instructor.

The first issue is relatively simple because class may be organized in many different ways depending on certain needs and possibilities. Students may study materials individually and then participate in the plenary discussion. The class may be divided into small teams that proceed separately through the whole sequence and then compare and discuss results. Case studies also may act as introductory elements to another type of activity (e.g., a simulation or another case study).

A case study done correctly and rationally should consist of several sequential phases. These phases are as follows:

1. comprehension of the situation and any difficulties;
2. diagnosis and formulation of the problem;
3. generation of alternative solutions (decisions);
4. anticipation of outcomes and consequences; and
5. formulation of and reports on possible solutions.

If cases are extended and complex, the need may arise to repeat steps three and four, or even to come back to the step two -- a new formulation of the problem.

However, Easton (1992), whose conception is used here, warns against a too rigid approach to these phases. Every teacher should strive to form his/her own style when carrying out a case study in class. This style should be consistent with the essence of the discipline he/she practices and with the nature of the subject matter being taught. There is, however, another, even more important reason for flexibility. People, especially when working in groups and with heightened emotion, obviously do not work rationally and systematically. It is often the opposite. For instance, they may use short cuts and/or respect hidden assumptions. In general, to learn a procedure that is adequate for task accomplishment may be recognized as an expertise that is difficult to achieve and must be trained patiently.

For a case study to be an effective teaching method, the students must be active. The teacher can neither dominate nor withdraw completely from the activity. Analyses and discussions should be focused on the ideas, conceptions, and solutions generated by the students. The teacher completes his/her mission by preparing the case and developing an atmosphere that promotes a constructive exchange of ideas. The level of the teacher's involvement in the discussion depends on the students' abilities. In other words, the teacher's role is similar to the role of a good orchestra conductor. The teacher should employ all of his/her potential.

C. Limitations of the method

The case study method is fashionable and has many enthusiastic followers. In fact, it does not have any serious shortcomings. To complete the picture, though, one should mention some possible problems related to its application.

The first problem may be the reaction of the students. They may not share the same opinion as the teacher with regard to the use of the case study. Paradoxically, perplexing questions may be asked by students accustomed to passivity and by students who are strongly motivated to acquire as much knowledge as possible. The first group does not know the expectations of the activity and may experience a sense of threat or doubt. The second group may fail to notice the advantages of this method because of its indirect contribution to learning. In such cases, both groups may perceive the teacher as a person who does not comply with his/her role and shifts the responsibility of teaching to the students. These types of problems are justifiable and can be overcome through a sound pedagogical approach.

As any other method, the case study is not useful for all purposes. If we want students to acquire a particular amount of concrete knowledge, we should not use the case study.

In developing a case study, the author makes some assumptions that are not noticed very often by him/herself nor by the students. One can even consider the "hidden agenda" of the case (Wick 1969; Yin, 1984). It leads to a dangerous one-sidedness in the description of events. The means to neutralize such a threat should follow two directions. First, the teacher should concentrate on training the students' habits of investigating critically the assumptions and ways of reasoning that are implicit in the materials. The second possibility is to submit the case study, along with its conception, assumptions, and purposes, to another person (or persons) for honest and critical analysis.

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PART II:

EXEMPLARY

LESSON SCENARIOS

SIMULATION

"Increased Funds for Education"

1. Goal of the Simulation

The goal of this simulation is to demonstrate various decision making procedures that may be employed by collective bodies. In this particular case, the collective body is a School Council. Students will have an opportunity to learn three procedures of decision making:

A. *Consulted Decision*

After a discussion at the School Council, a decision is made by the school principal. The advantages of this decision making strategy are its simplicity and individual responsibility. Moreover, the decision can be made comparatively fast: the discussion ends at the moment the decision maker ascertains what should be done. The weak side of this procedure is that participants in the discussion have a limited impact on the final decision, which may be a reason for disappointment.

B. *Voting*

After discussion, the School Council votes to choose one variant. The strong side of this procedure is its simplicity as well as the fact that each group member participates in the decision making process. The disadvantage is that "losers" may not accept the definitive solution and, as a result, will not participate in its implementation. It can antagonize and polarize group members.

C. Reaching Consensus

Deciding on an option depends on every participant. During discussion, participants have to analyze the interests of all parties involved. Then, they have to make a decision that is acceptable to everybody. The advantage of this method is full participation, recognition of minority interests, and common acceptance of a solution. It can prevent conflicts when carrying out the decision. The disadvantage is that the discussion lasts a long time. Another drawback is the necessity to convince everyone. Also, conflicts that arise during the discussion have to be solved. This procedure of decision making requires a structuring of the problem solving process in a way that prevents heightened conflict and ensures clear recognition of what was already established and what has yet to be elaborated.

The activity we suggest may be a base for discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of different strategies of decision making, as well as on such problems as the factors responsible for conflict escalation, the role of good communication between group members, and techniques of protection from personal attacks and from value conflicts. This simulation can also be used for handling problems included in other course topics: "Role and Position of the Teacher", "Student Rights and Responsibilities", "Parental Participation in Schools", and (with slight adjustment) "The Distribution of Resources for Education."

2. Teaching with the Simulation

A. *Size of group*: 18-30 persons

B. *Time*: 1.5 hours or 3 hours

C. *Procedure:*

Step 1. The instructor should divide the students into three groups: "teachers", "students", "parents." He/she instructs them that they will participate in the "School Council" meeting to undertake an important decision on designation of a substantial amount of money that was added to the school budget.

Step 2. Each student has to obtain the scenario entitled "Planning a New School Budget." Then, the students are asked to rank the goals (the list of goals is provided in "3. Materials"). Money should be designated according to individual preferences of each "teacher", "student", or "parent." (Time: 5 minutes)

Step 3. Students meet in groups of "teachers", "students", and "parents" to discuss their priorities and to choose, as a result of discussion, the two most important goals. (Time: 15-20 minutes)

Step 4. Each group is divided into three sub-groups. On this basis, three "School Councils" are established. Each of them consists of "teachers", "students" and "parents." Each "School Council" will proceed according to one of the three models noted above and pointed out by the instructor: consulted decision, voting, or reaching consensus. In the first case, the "school principal" who will make final decision should be designated.

Step 5. Each "School Council" has to make a final decision by choosing one goal for which the additional funds will be designated. (Time: 30-40 minutes)

Step 6. After the task is completed, a plenary discussion should take place. An important task for the instructor is to help students to "step out" of their role. This change is necessary in order for the students to take the perspective of an observer and to generalize about their experience during discussion.

3. Materials

Scenario: *"Planing a New School Budget"*

Your school was chosen to obtain additional funds. However, the educational authorities fixed the list of alternative goals for which funds can be designated and insists that only one of them can be chosen. The reason is that they are trying to be cautious. Otherwise, money may disappear "in the deep sea of needs", and no one will know where it went. The authorities have formulated a condition: If one goal can not be chosen, the money will go to another school.

The list of goals:

1. Employ extra teachers in order to reduce the number of students per class to fifteen.
2. A 50% teacher salary raise.
3. Investment in school equipment (audio-video facilities, computers, furniture, library) with the purpose of achieving world standards in the future.
4. Establishment of a "social fund" that will allow teachers to take a decent holiday for physical and psychological recreation.
5. Establishment of a "stipend fund" that will provide the best teachers with a half-year sabbatical at a recognized educational institution abroad.

6. Establishment of a "stipend fund" for especially talented students that can help them better their intellectual development through, among other possibilities, study in good private schools in and out of the country.

7. Establishment of a "social fund" for students who have difficult financial problems, preventing them from a good start at the university.

PSYCHODRAMA

"The Pregnant Student"

1. The Goal of the Psychodrama

The goal of this psychodrama is to familiarize students with a sample of problems to which they may be exposed during their professional careers. Being closely associated to the topic "Role and Position of the Teacher", it may provide a relevant experience for reflection on student rights, the role the school can play when a student finds him/herself in a difficult situation, the social consequences of various solutions to such problems, and methods for a constructive handling of educational conflicts (e.g., analysis of gains and loses, analysis of different interests, "who wins, who loses" analysis, and "Are satisfactory solutions possible for all parties involved?"). For this reason, this scenario can be also used for a discussion on the issues included in the topics "Student Rights and Responsibilities" and "School as an Organization and as a Community."

2. Teaching with the Psychodrama

This psychodrama can be done in two ways:

Option 1. The group is divided into five member teams. In each of them, the roles are assigned to individuals. Every team plays its own psychodrama. During the debriefing session, students exchange and discuss their experiences.

Option 2. Five student volunteers are assigned to the roles. The rest of the group is the audience. After the role play is completed, all students participate in the debriefing and discussion.

For both options students have the same materials.

3. Materials

"The Pregnant Student"

(to be read by all participants)

From an article published in the

Evening Express (4/28/1993):

> Youngsters start early nowadays. This is even the case in an elementary school. During the entrance examination in the one of high schools in Wrocław, a candidate announced that she was in a hurry because she had to feed her baby. The examination proctor was shocked, but she explained that she was a happy mother for a few months already. Her chance for being admitted to the school was not diminished, though. She passed the exams and was accepted. After one year, she had to resign, however, because she was not able to harmonize her responsibilities as a mother and as a student at the same time . . .
>
> In the last grade of high school, one of the students was expecting a baby. She wanted to leave day school, but the school principal and her class teacher persuaded her to continue. Until now, nobody but a few teachers know about her pregnancy. She will have a baby at the end of the vacation break. The girl is supposed to take her final exam for graduation in the regular term . . .
>
> In one of the Warsaw high schools, a 17 year old pregnant girl - in spite of her protests - was sent for leave during her pregnancy. In Kielce province, angry parents of the classmates of a pregnant student forced her to move to another school. They didn't want this bad model affecting their off-springs . . .
>
> . . . The anti-abortion law that has been in force since March 16 of the current year obliges schools to help pregnant students...

Roles:

The School District Representative

You are interested in the problem of school attitudes toward pregnant students (the anti-abortion law that is in force since March 16, 1993, obliges schools to help pregnant students). It happens almost every year that in schools in your district, a few students get pregnant. Youngsters start early. A few years ago, all such cases were broadly publicized. At present, a pregnant student is not an extraordinary phenomenon. You want to collect statistical data on the extent of this phenomenon and on reactions from the school community. The school principals were asked to inform you about each "student-mother" case. Recently, one of them notified you of a case and asked you to participate in a meeting about this case. You are going to this meeting with the hope that you will learn more because at the moment you know no details on this particular case.

The School Principal

You are a school principal. You were hired for this position by one vote. Your antagonists kept reminding you about your communist party record by mostly exaggerating your activity in the Society for Secularized Education. However, your professional abilities prevailed. Nevertheless, experience from this competition caused you to avoid discussions on the problems of religion in school as well as discussions on any so called "controversial issues" within the school community. You simply believe that engagement in such discussions can be used against you.

A week ago, the teacher advisor of III Grade submitted a request to transfer a student, Dominika Kochanska, to the evening school because she is pregnant. This situation is difficult because:

- the teacher request has already raised lively discussions and various comments from the teachers and the students;
- you are afraid of the negative reactions by the parents and, to some extent, by the teachers if you make either decision: reject or accept the class teacher's request;
- according to law, school is obligated to help pregnant students (anti-abortion law in force since March 16, 1993);
- you would like to avoid too much publicity in the media and such a case, independent of your decision, is still of great interest to journalists;

- personally, you think that if Dominika stays in her class, it will not cause any negative influence on her classmates. They are about to be graduated. They are almost adults.

In this situation you decided to organize a meeting in your office. You have invited Dominika's parents, her teacher, and a representative of the school district who is interested in the problems of "student-mothers." You consider that it will be safer for you if the decision on such a precedent is made by the educational authorities. At the last moment, you also come to the conclusion that it is much more democratic if Dominika participates in this meeting. You send the caretaker to call her to your office.

Class Teacher Advisor of III Grade

You were surprised and "shocked" when you noticed that your student was pregnant. (There was a break for the winter holiday, so you did not see her for a relatively long time.) You always considered Dominika Kochanska to be a modest girl. She is a good student, although rather shy in relations with others. Generally, you maintain good contact with your students. You try to talk to them about their problems and the problems of the class. When talking to parents and your fellow teachers, you always stress the point that educators of adolescents should know their students well, to provide them with needed advice in difficult situations. This is the way to prevent kids from irresponsible decisions on the one hand, and, on the other, to support the authority of the school as an educational institution and its right and responsibility to present opinions on what is wrong and what is right. This is a way to teach the young generation to participate in institutionalized social life.

Your apprehension is that the case of Dominika may have a negative effect because:

- it disturbs your principles in life and in your educational work with young people that are known to students and other teachers. This situation may put you in a perplexing position;
- this is a shock for the class. There was no time to get accustomed to this situation;
- Dominika may become a negative model for other students and will influence them in a wrong direction;
- Dominika does not want to identify the child's father (it may be another student from the same class, and, unavoidably, such a situation would provoke conflicts in the future);

- you can not imagine how one can coordinate the responsibilities of being a mother and a student in day school one year before graduation (for example, What about feeding the baby?).

After considering all the pros and cons, you submitted the request to transfer Dominika to the evening school where she could complete her high school education in a calm atmosphere. You are convinced that the majority of your students' parents will support this request since they like to refer to the school's image as traditionally solid and well respected.

Zbigniew Kochanski - Father of Dominika

Finally, you have accepted the fact that Dominika is pregnant. Of course, it would be better for everybody if it never had happened, but it did, and this is not a reason for the "world to fall apart." You and your wife will take care of the baby. This is almost like having a new child. However, the important thing is that Dominika may complete her education. You dream about her continuing the family's professional tradition (architecture). Dominika is very talented in this field.

You have heard that the class teacher is proposing to transfer Dominika to the evening school. You are afraid that because of the rather low educational standards in this type of school, she can have problems when trying to meet the university's entrance requirements. Also, it seems to you that there is no legal basis for such a decision. Dominika is a good student, and she has never had any educational problems.

You are glad that the principal organized the meeting to solve this problem. You believe that everything can be sorted out, especially since you and your wife offered to help if problems occur. You hope that clear rules are established that will help Dominika to complete her education in the regular high school.

Dominika Kochanska - Student of III Grade

(one year before graduation)

The "stormy" (in various meanings) beginnings of the pregnancy are finally behind you. Your parents have accepted the fact that you will be a teenage mother. This acceptance is really the most important thing for you. You would like to attend the same class until the end of your schooling and receive your high school certificate with your class next spring. Your parents promised to help you take care of the baby. Marriage to the child's father is out of the question.

You know that you can not count on any privileges in the school, but you are sure that you will cope. You are recognized as a good student with some artistic talents. After graduation from high school, you would like to study architecture. You like it, and it also would be a continuation of the family tradition (both of your parents are architects).

One can notice already that you are pregnant, but you feel very well with the pregnancy. It does not disturb you when learning and working (you work for a commercial company to raise some money).

A moment ago, the caretaker asked you to the principal's office. You do not know why, but you can predict that it will be sort of a "serious talk." You have had many already. Now, you are experienced enough to "survive" it.

SIMULATION

"A Bomb Threat in the School"

1. The Goal of Simulation

The goal of this simulation is to familiarize students with some problems connected to the issue of student rights, especially problems that may arise in a conflict situation when a student oversteps his/her responsibilities or duties. Also, it is intended to illustrate various ways of perceiving and interpreting student rights depending on the position of the individual in the school community (e.g., parent, other student, teacher) and situational and personal interdependencies. Finally, it is intended to show if and to what extent children's rights are considered in decision making toward resolution of a difficult situation.

This simulation may also serve as a useful base for discussion on problems included in the following topics: "Role and Position of the Teacher"; "Parental Participation in Schools"; and "School as an Organization and as a Community."

2. Teaching with the Simulation

A. *Size of group*: 13 "actors" plus any amount of "observers"

B. *Time*: about 1 hour 40 minutes

C. *Procedure*:

Step 1. Each group member obtains a written description of an event that took place in one of the elementary schools: two seventh grade students were caught while making an anonymous telephone call to the police. They were imparting false information that a bomb was planted in the school. The principal is inclined to expel these students. If they are expelled, they will have to continue their education in another school designated by the school district office. He decides, however, to consult the School Council on this problem, and he asks for a meeting. (Allow about five minutes for understanding the context of the simulation).

Step 2. Students obtain a list of roles based on the membership of the School Council: "teachers", "parents", and "students." There are four additional roles: both "perpetrators", the "school principal", and the "student rights ombudsman." The roles are defined in a way that should secure the variety of attitudes and behaviors of the participants engaged in the conflict. The students will need some time to learn these roles. Individuals who have no specific role are observers. Those students playing the roles should be given labels with the names of their characters (time: 10 minutes).

Step 3. Hand out the material that describes the simulation and the tasks of the characters. Fifteen minutes should be designated for learning the issue and for questions.

Step 4. The first phase of the simulation (*"Consultations"*) may begin (time: 30 minutes).

Step 5. Immediately after the first phase, the next phase, *"School Council Meeting"*, should begin. This phase consists of two parts: *"Discussion"* (30 minutes) and *"Voting"* (10 minutes).

Step 6. After the simulation is completed, students should detach their tags. General discussion may begin.

3. Materials

A. The Narrative (for all participants):

Several times this year, your school was the scene of a rather irritating incident. An anonymous phone caller has been calling the closest police station to tell them that a bomb was planted in the school. In each case, it was a false alarm, but the police were furious because they had to search the building every time. The classes were interrupted and a big turmoil developed. Teachers of the youngest students were the most upset because they could not simply send their students home. They had to organize something outside of the building (many mothers are working and small children just could not be left without any supervision). Parents were complaining, and the chief of the police station had a "serious talk" with your principal, blaming him for this "affair" because the individuals who were calling the police were undoubtedly students.

It happened again at the beginning of last week. This time, however, the perpetrators were caught in the act. They were making a call from school, from a telephone that is installed in the storage area for sports equipment. The school caretaker overheard this conversation by accident. The perpetrators turned out to be two students of the VII grade -- Janek Mietkowski and Jacek Kowalski. During the ensuing "interrogation", they confessed to everything and shared the responsibility equally.

The principal of the school asked the School Council to meet...

B. The Roles:

Janek Mietkowski

You are an average student and you have never been a so called "trouble maker." You do not have any serious infractions on your personal record. "Interrogated" by your teacher-advisor and school principal, you attempted to take the whole responsibility for the event. You felt really awful.

Jacek Kowalski

You have a good relationship with only one teacher in school. This is a physical education teacher. You are the best athlete in the school, and you take every opportunity to "escape" from other school activities and go to the gymnasium or playing field. Due to your involvement in sports, you have the privilege of keeping a key for the athletic equipment storage room. You are a poor student, and you do not like to study. You wanted to take complete responsibility for the event and protect your colleague. As a matter of fact, you do not think it was anything more than a "stupid joke."

Tadeusz Kuzma - School Principal

You are a history teacher and a very skillful school administrator. Because of your administrative abilities, you coped with all political "storms" and you earned the school principal's position without any problems. Now, you would like to "spread your wings" and run the school in the way that will allow it to meet the highest standards. The "bomb affair" irritated you a great deal, and you did not hide your feelings. You think that for the school's best interest, the perpetrators should be punished properly. But, you rather prefer to be supported by the School Council when you decide that they have to be expelled from the school. Additionally, you consider the involvement of parents, students, and teachers may be a good opportunity to activate this body.

Krystyna Jaworowska - Student Rights Ombudsman

You were appointed to this position a year ago by the school district supervisor. This nomination was supported by a local division of the Committee for the Protection of Children's Rights. You endeavor to collect as much data as possible on the students' rights in different types of schools, but, first of all, you want to be helpful when problems arise. Often, you visit schools on your own initiative, as in this case.

Members of the School Council:

Adam Banach (Teacher)

You are a physical education teacher. Compared with other teachers in the school, you know Jacek Kowalski the best, and you like him a lot. This is your first year in the school, and you are still not sure if teaching will be your life long career. Students from the higher grades admire you. They love your "easy" manners and your "partnership" attitude toward them.

Marta Karwowska (Teacher)

You teach biology. You are an older woman. You will retire soon. Students consider you a strict and demanding teacher. This year you substituted for a younger colleague (she had a baby and took a year's leave of absence) as a class teacher advisor of VII grade. Both "delinquents" attend this class. The school year began only a short while ago, so you do not know either student nor theirs parents very well yet.

Wanda Mazur (Teacher)

You are an educator of the youngest. Children from I to III grade are usually under your supervision. Both Jacek and Janek were your students a few years ago. You still think of them as being small boys in their first class.

Tomek Madej (Student)

You are a student of VII grade. Everybody considers you an exceptionally skilful mathematics student. Of course, you are a "favorite" of the math teacher. Also, your colleagues like you for your brave behavior when defending students from occasionally unfair treatment by the teachers.

Natasza Sosnowska (Student)

You are in the same grade with Jacek and Janek. Everybody in the school likes you. You are a closest friend of Jacek's girlfriend.

Wojtek Janik (Student)

You are a student of IV grade, and you represent the youngest students in the School Council. You are a devoted advocate of their interests, and you do not consider yourself to be "less important" than the older ones.

However, sometimes they do behave like you are less important.

Edward Bugaj (Parent)

You own a private company that is very prosperous. You are very helpful in getting additional money for the school. If it is needed, you also support the school budget from your own company's "pocket." You intend to work with the school even after your daughter has been graduated. You think that being a "Maecenas of education" is the kind of activity proper for a serious businessman.

Małgorzata Dykiel (Parent)

You are the manager of a small shop. You know Janek and Jacek because they often visit your son who is in the same grade. You also know their parents since you live in the same apartment building as they do. You know that the father of Janek Mietkowski was elected to Parliament a few days ago.

Marek Golab (Parent)

You are a psychologist working with teenagers. Three of your own children attend this school (II, IV and VIII grade). The older students here know you and appreciate very much the psychological workshops you organize for them.

C. Description of the Simulation (for all participants):

The happening consists of two phases:

Phase I: "*Consultation*"

Instruction for "School Council members":

An hour ago, the principal's secretary informed you that tonight at 6 p.m. a special meeting of the School Council will take place. It concerns an affair you know about because there was a lot of "noise" about it, and not only in the school. The principal expects the Council to formulate an opinion and to help find a solution to the problem. You can spend this afternoon consulting other members of the Council if you think that they can be helpful to you in deciding what to do about the problem. You can also talk to both "delinquents" and to the Student Rights Ombudsman. You can search for people who think like you to establish a common strategy for the meeting.

Instruction for the "school principal":

Various people will ask you to give more details about the agenda of the upcoming School Council meeting. You should inform them that you need an opinion from the Council on the "bomb affair" because this is a rather dreadful incident. You should not hide your opinion, but you should try not to influence the opinion of others.

Instruction for the "Student Rights Ombudsman":

Various members of the School Council of the elementary school where the "bomb affair" took place will seek your advice. You may inform them on the children/students' rights but you should try not to influence their opinions.

Instruction for the "delinquents":

Members of the School Council -- your colleagues, teachers, and parents -- may ask you various questions concerning the incident. You do not have to say more than you already did when you talked to your class teacher and the principal. You do not have to hide your feelings about the event and this continuing "interrogation."

Phase II: "*Meeting of the School Council*"

Instruction for all participants:
(the "delinquents" do not participate in the meeting)

The meeting is opened by the school principal. He informs the Council why he has called this meeting. Next, he asks Mr. Golab (parent-psychologist) to chair the meeting.
At the beginning, Mr. Golab asks for people who wish to express the points of view of "groups" that have come to a common opinion on what should be done with the case. Afterwards, he asks about individual opinions. He also encourages those who did not speak spontaneously to take the floor.

Then, he summarizes the discussion and formulates conclusions on "what should be done." He writes them on the blackboard as conclusions (a), (b), (c), etc. He asks the participants to make sure that his formulations are correct. He announces the election of a commission that will direct the voting and give a chair to its representative. Each School Council member votes by writing the letter of their choice on a piece of paper and putting it in the ballot-box (the voting is anonymous). The Student Rights Ombudsman and principal do not vote. A representative of the voting commission announces a break while he counts the votes. After the break he announces the verdict to the Council.

Instructions for the observers:

Your task is to follow the events from the point of view of the rights of the child in school. It concerns the rights of "delinquents", but also other students -- the members of the School Council. Try to register all violations, but also actions that you consider as proper and respectful for student rights.

4. *Other Materials*:

For this simulation, the ballot-box, charts for voting, and tags with names of the characters should be prepared in advance.

Also, it may be useful to employ such materials as the statutes of a particular school or regulations concerning a School Council. They may help the simulation to approximate more closely "real" life rules.

SOURCE ANALYSIS

"The Legal Basis for Parental Participation in School Life"

1. The Goal of this Analysis

This activity is aimed at helping students to comprehend the legal basis for parental participation in the education of their children and to understand the intentions of legislators. It is also intended to facilitate realization of how various schools interpret and adopt formal regulations.

Also, the general ability to analyze the formal regulations of school life is a valuable ability for understanding other areas of school operations. Therefore, this type of activity may be used for accomplishing some of the goals related to other topics of this course.

2. Teaching with Source Analysis

A. Analyzing the Educational System Act

For this analysis, students should work in small groups. The task of each group is to:

- identify all regulations included in the Educational System Act that concern parents and their relationships with a school; and
- describe, on this basis, "the declaration of the legislators intentions."

The next step is a plenary discussion. The first part should serve as a discussion of the different interpretations of intentions prepared by each group and then for reaching a consensus on this issue. It may be important to draw the students' attention to the possible causes of people's differences in understanding the formal regulations (e.g., personal, "hidden" intentions and problems due to the specific juridical language). The second part of the discussion may concern a comparison of "What is possible?" and "What is desirable?" Students may evaluate the law from the point of view of their personal opinions concerning the participation of parents in education. (This was discussed during the preceding class. See: *The School in Democratic Society*, Topic III, Unit II, pp. 55-56).

B. The Act and School Regulations

This part of class should also begin with a small group activity. Students are provided with samples of school statutes and regulations of Pedagogical Councils, School Councils, and Parents Councils. The students' task is to evaluate these documents from the point of view of:

- utilization of the opportunities provided by the Educational System Act,
- operationalization of the legal regulations on the school level.

During the plenary session that follows this activity, it may be useful to discuss problems that schools face when "transforming" general formal regulations to the actual interpretation of these rules as practiced on the school level.

3. Materials

- The Educational System Act from September 7, 1991 (Government Gazette of the Republic of Poland, no. 95 item

425). Especially important for this topic are the following regulations: art. 16-8 (the obligation of schooling); art. 18-1, 2, 3 (parental responsibility); art. 39-4 (cooperation of the school principal with parents); art. 51-1, par. 2 (Parents in the School Council); art. 53 (Parents Council in the school); art. 54 (the rights of the Parents Council); art. 66 (parents and individual programs of education).

- School statutes and regulations of School Councils and Parents Councils.

DEVELOPING THE INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

"School-Local Community Relations"

1. The Goal of the Activity

The main goal of involving students in the process of interviewing local government representatives (members of the community council/community office) and school (located in this community) representatives is to make them realize the amount of the local administration's power and its influence on the school. The best way to accomplish this goal is to provide students with a direct personal experience.

One should also recognize that the ability to prepare and to carry out an interview is an important skill for a teacher. Therefore, this method may be used in any other topic for collecting data on "real life."

2. Teaching with Interview Questionnaires

A. Introduction

Step 1. First part of class should serve for organizing student knowledge on the role of self-government in the functioning of society. As a starting point for discussion, the instructor may address the question of the first free local self-government election that took place on May 28, 1990. The opening questions may be: Why was it said that after this election we woke up in a "new Poland?"; and, How do such expectations fit reality? To facilitate discussion on the discrepancy between the expected and existing state of affairs, the instructor may refer to information from mass media on the difficulties faced by newly created self-governments and the personal experiences of the students.

When summarizing the discussion, the instructor should emphasize three issues:

1. the role of decentralization of power for democratic organization of the state;
2. the problems of transformation from the centralized system to the decentralized system; and
3. the dissimilarity of social attitudes in democratic and non-democratic systems.

(Discussion and summary should not last longer than 30 minutes.)

Step 2. As a next step, closer reflection on the problem of school-local community relations is necessary. Students, divided into small groups, should examine the Act on Local Self-Government. For this activity, simple organizing questions may be helpful. For instance: What is the community council?; Who appoints and dismisses the mayor of the town, the chief of the village, or the president of the city?; or, What educational and cultural institutions are financed by the local council? General discussion should result in a description of the legal base for local self-government and its possibilities to influence schooling. The instructor should point out other sources of information on the relations between school and local authority, such as mass media materials and sociological studies. (Time: 15 minutes).

B. Preparation of the Interviews

The purpose of the interview is to collect information on the relationship between school and local self-government. To what extent are the interests of school the preoccupation of the local council? Are school representatives able to promote school interests at the local council level?

The most convenient way to carry out this study is to focus on one or two localities (depending on the number of students in the class). Some students may interview members of the local council, and others may interview school representatives. This approach provides the possibility to encounter different points of view. The study should concern elementary schools because this category of schools may be or are administered by the local council.

The interviews should take the form of a natural conversation. Nevertheless, the students have to prepare the list of main issues that are the focus of the interview. The questionnaires should be developed by students working in small groups. The instructor may help them by showing them some of the most important categories of the issues and, if it is necessary, providing examples of specific questions. Some examples are presented below.

Content of the Interview

The first task of the student during the interview is to collect basic information on the local community, especially the immediate community surroundings of the school (e.g., size, population, social-professional structure, and the role of this area in the administrative unit). Afterwards, he/she has to learn about the makeup of the local council (e.g., number of members, their age, gender, and professions) and its structure (the specific commissions that operate within the council). Information on the school, such as size of the school, the number of classes, and the number of students and teachers, should also be collected. An important part of the initial investigation is whether the school is under local or state supervision. This type of data may be collected during the interview or from the secretaries' offices of the local council and of the school.

The set of questions should be different depending on the target of the interview. Two versions of the questionnaire should be prepared: one for interviewing the local council representative and one for interviewing the school representative.

Questions for the Local Council Representative:

The questionnaire for the local council representative should begin with a set of questions that concerns the performance of the council. Is he/she satisfied with being elected to the council? Is he/she going to run for a second term? How does he/she evaluate the council's activity within the community? What are the biggest successes and failures of the council?

The next set of questions should concern the commission that is engaged in problems of education. Does the interlocutor work for the commission on education? If so, why? What are the tasks of this commission? What has the commission been able to acquire? What are the main problems of the schools in this community? Did the local council decide to take over the elementary schools? Why? Why not?

The next category of questions should be aimed at the approach of the council toward school problems. Do the council members have a unified position on school issues? Are school persons (principals, teachers) among members of the local council? If the council obtained unexpectedly 100 million złoty, what are the chances that this money would be designated for a school? Who would be for this use of the money? Who would be against it and why? Did the community council (or community office) influence the nomination of the school principal? Are there discrepancies of opinions (and what kind) between the council and school on important school issues?

Questions for a School Representative:

The interview should start with questions about the experiences of the interlocutor concerning his/her work in the school. What were his/her motives for selecting this profession? How long has he/she been working in that particular school? What are the main problems of this school? On which people and on what institutions can the school rely?

The second set of questions should concern cooperation between school and the council. The student should identify persons who promote school interests in the local council.

He/she also should recognize how the school representative perceives the council's attitude toward school problems. One may want to ask a question taken from the interview with the local council member: If the council had some spare money, would it be designated for school purposes?

C. Proceeding with the Interview Process

The instructor should establish the number of interviews to be conducted. He/she should also have a detailed discussion with the students concerning the procedures of the interview. For instance, the instructor should let the students know how to start an interview:

> My name is...
>
> I am a student at...
>
> During our class, we discussed the educational policy of local councils. Can you answer some questions on this topic that concern your community?"

The framework of the interview report should be established. Students should register both questions and answers. This material should be written down, copied, and distributed to the other students. Each of them should have the opportunity to learn about the interviews conducted by their colleagues.

3. Materials

The instructor should provide the groups with a list of main issues that should be addressed during the interviews. In addition, he/she should provide each student with a list of basic guidelines for carrying out the interview process.

DECISION TREE

"Distribution of Funds for Various Educational Enterprises"

1. The Goal of the Decision Tree Activity

Simulating the decision making process on the distribution of funds for various components of education should help students to understand the nature of financial requirements for education and the rules of financing in this public area. In addition, this activity is intended to help students understand the course and determinants (including the function of experts) of the decision making process in situations that demand compromise and harmonization between competing public needs. Finally, this technique may be employed for other topics, especially for debates on conflicting goals.

2. Teaching the Decision Tree

A. Size of the group: up to 15 persons

B. Time: 1.5 hours

C. Procedure:

Step 1. Preparation. At this stage, the activity is aimed at collecting the preliminary data necessary for making a decision. In small groups (five or six people), students analyze parts of the Educational System Act and related regulations that concern school funding. On this base (plus information from the readings), they prepare a register of the educational expenses that are financed by the state. During plenary discussions, students should coordinate their lists and categorize educational expenditures of the state. For example:

1. State elementary schools:
    a. teachers' wages
    b. supplementary payments for teachers (including awards and stipends)
    c. administration, attendance
    d. social fund
    e. school infrastructure (e.g., buildings, heating, repairs)
    f. school equipment, teaching materials
    g. day rooms and cafeterias
    h. stipends for students
2. Private and social elementary schools
    a. per student subsidies

... etc.

This activity should last about 30 minutes.

Step 2. Decisions - Phase I. Students are divided into two sub- groups: "Members of the Parliamentary Commission for Education" and "Experts." Groups should not consist of more than 6-8 persons, but, if there are more students in the class, two "Parliamentary Commissions" may be formed. Members of each group should have tags that indicate their group affiliation.

The task of the "Parliamentary Commission" is to develop a preliminary distribution of budget money for various areas of expenditure. They have to establish priorities upon which they agree and point out areas of disagreement. Questions for the "Experts" should be prepared on the basis of these developments.

At the same time, the "Experts" distribute among themselves the categories of budget expenditures in such a way that two persons take responsibility for one category. One of the two "Experts" has to prepare a short (no more than 50-60 words) explanation for why his/her specific category should be a priority for funding. The second "Expert" has to justify why this component is less important.

About 10 minutes should be designated for this activity.

Step 3. Conference with the "Experts" - Phase II. At this stage, members of the "Commission(s)" listen to presentations by the "Experts", using questions prepared during the first phase of activity. (Time: 10 minutes)

Step 4. Decisions - Phase III. After consultation, members of the "Commission(s)" have to make a final decision concerning the distribution of the budget money. The first step is to review previous decisions by checking if they are still valid after the "Experts" opinions were collected. The second step is aimed at the coordination of a final decision.

At this stage the "Experts" take the role of observers. Their task is to assess the extent to which their ideas helped the decision makers to reach a consensus, or why they did not come to a unified opinion. (Time: 10 minutes)

Step 5. Discussion. During the debriefing, the instructor should draw the students' attention to those categories of expenditures that raised major controversies and doubts. The "decision makers" and "Experts" may exchange their opinions on "if" and "what" advice of the "Experts" helped in making decisions. The instructor may also point out the relation between the results of the students' activity and the real distribution of money for different educational purposes, including any accompanying rationales. (Time: 30 minutes)

3. Materials

Introduction to the simulation (instruction for all participants):

> The Parliamentary Commission for Education has to distribute money from the state that is budgeted for educational purposes and according to a preliminarily established list of priorities. The Commission has at its disposal 100 units.

Instructions for "decision makers":

Phase I:
Your task consists of preparing the distribution of the 100 units of budget money between different categories of educational expenditures that require state funding. When discussing how the money should be divided, you should try to establish areas of cost you can agree upon and those which are subjects of controversy. Also, you have to prepare questions for experts who may be helpful to you in reaching a common opinion. Remember, when distributing money for different purposes **you have to respect the interests of education as a whole not the interests of specific groups or specific purposes that may seem important to an individual.**

Phase II:
Each of you can consult each expert. However, you have to remember that the time for consultation is limited and your task is to gain the information that is most useful for eliminating doubts and controversies. The opinions of the different experts may be contradictory. Therefore, you have to asses carefully the "power" of their arguments.

Phase III:

This is the time for final decision making. All of you know that "the quilt is too small" and that there is not enough money to cover all needs efficiently. Nevertheless, your task is to find a solution that will be the best for education as a whole. **Remember, if you do not reach an agreement, the transmission of money from the state budget to education will be delayed several months.**

Instructions for "Experts":

Phase I:

You have to reconsider carefully the reasons for your opinion. Remember, both your knowledge and the way you present it may be decisive for the functioning of the schools in the coming year. Try to prepare factual arguments because this is what decision makers expect you to do.

Phase II:

Listen carefully to the decision makers questions. Try to provide them with concrete answers. Admit, if necessary and according to your knowledge and experiences, that there is not one, univocal answer for all questions.

Phase III:

Now, you can verify if your advice was useful for the decision makers. While listening to their discussion, try to find an answer for the following questions: Did you influence any of them? How? Why?

Other materials:

- Educational System Act from September 7, 1991 (Government Gazette of the Republic of Poland no. 95, item 425) particularly arts. 79-81, art. 96 (on decreasing differences in the conditions of schooling), and art. 80 (subsidies for non-public schools).

- Decree of the Council of Ministers from September 18, 1992, Government Gazette of the Republic of Poland no. 71, item 354 (subsidies).

- Decree of the Minister of Education from October 23, 1992, Government Gazette of the Republic of Poland no. 81, item 419 (subsidies).

- The "Teachers Charter."

WRITING FORMAL LETTERS

"Where and How to Find Sponsorship for a School Activity"

1. The Goal of Writing Formal Letters

The main goal of this activity is to help prospective teachers realize that their future work may include the need to raise money for specific school related purposes. Their success in this sort of endeavor depends primarily on choosing the "right" potential benefactor and on skills for generating the benefactor's interest in the school enterprise. It was designed, therefore, for students to have an opportunity to investigate the most important factors that should be considered if such action is planned.

The ability to write formal letters may be very functional from the point of view of myriad issues included in this course. For this reason, the letter writing exercise may be applied to other topics. For instance: "Student Rights and Responsibilities" and "Schools and the Local Community."

The analysis of the school budget, which serves as a preparatory phase for writing letters, consists of a small case study and should be carried out according to established procedures noted in Part I of *Auxiliary Materials*. This task was conceived as a preliminary exercise before the "bigger" case study is introduced (see lesson scenario: "The Experimental Rebellion"). In addition, it is an opportunity to examine the "real" expenses of the "real" school.

2. Teaching Formal Letter Writing

A. Preparation of the letter

The instructor should provide students with a sample school budget, explaining its content and giving a sense of the separate items, if necessary. Afterwards, the students, in small groups (4-5 persons), should study the school's expenditures in detail. On the basis of this analysis, they have to select a budget item that, in their opinion, is under-financed (for instance: stipends for students or teaching materials).

The next step is for students to decide who could be the donor of the money for the selected purpose (for instance: a "wealthy" company or foundation). The students have to consider the potential motives of benefactors and ways to address them in their letter. Then, they have to write the letter. This activity should last about 40 minutes.

B. The "Addressee" Assesses the Letter

At this stage, the groups exchange letters. Each group takes the position of the addressee and analyzes it. The organizing questions may be, Would you react positively to this letter?; If yes, why?; If not, why not?; Would you consider helping?; How? (Time: 20 minutes)

C. Plenary discussion

The plenary discussion should focus on two problems. First, errors that students made in writing the letters should be analyzed and possible improvements should be made. After making the necessary corrections, the letters may serve as models. They can be copied and given to each student as a part of his/her "diary" from the course.

Second, it may be worthwhile to designate some lesson time for discussion on other methods of collecting money for various school enterprises. The basis for discussion may consist of press articles that report on various initiatives of this kind (including joint actions with parents, students, and "friends" of school in the local community).

3. Materials

Some Incomes and Expenditures of One of the Schools

(in thousand zł)

Section 8011 B

Item	Planned expenditures 1992	Budget Plan 1993	Indicator (4:3)
2	3	4	5
General Funds	4.815.200	5.134.000	106,6
Normative Expenditures	4.673.947	4.948.000	105,9
Salaries	2.374.743	2.420.000	101,9
Subcontracting Fees	12.521	-	-
Staff Awards	115.152	200.000	173,6
Non-Salary Staff Expenditures	806	26.000	322,5
In-Country Business Trips	7.412	12.000	161,9
Materials and Equipment	428.605	570.000	133,0
Utilities	77.284	100.000	129,4
Material Services	299.414	41.000	13,7
Non-material services	13.754	25.000	181,8
Teaching Materials	129.069	270.000	209,2
General Fees and Dues	60.041	74.000	123,2
Social Security Payments	106.236	1.130.000	103,1
Severance Pay	48.900	80.000	163,6
Other	-	-	-

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2	3	4	5
Expenses Not Covered by Normative Fund	141.255	186.000	131,7
Stipend for students	5.255	12.000	228,3
Other Stipends	-	-	-
Social Fund	84.000	111.000	132
Housing Fund (subsidy for teachers' rent)	52.000	63.000	101,9

Section 8011

2	3	4	5
Development and Maintenance Fund	500.000	50.000	10
Development	500.000	50.000	10

Section 8011 C

2	3	4	5
Total Income	23.808	30.000	126
Income from services	20.483	-	-
Income from selling assets	-	30.000	-
Other income	3.250	-	-
Interest	75	-	-

D

Rationale for Income and Expenditures

I. Expenditures § 11 - Personnel Salaries as per the Calculation Table for Employment and Wages	2.420.000
§ 17 - Awards from the Awards Fund 8.5% form personal salaries in 1992 + 8.5% from wages of temporary employees and limited time employees from September 1, 1992	200.000
§ 23 - Stipends for Students Cost of Students' Vocational Training - Food and Transportation	12.000
§ 25 - Other Payments for Personnel Partial coverage of teachers' apartment rent - 16.000.000 Health Care for Teachers 10.000.000	26.000

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CASE STUDY

"The Experimental Rebellion"

1. The Goal of the Case Study

The goal of this activity is to help students understand the role of leadership in initiating and implementing democratic transformations in school. This case study provides an opportunity to analyze complex problems of managing atypical schools (like non-state schools) under circumstances of change, modernization, and an unstable social situation. It can also be helpful for reflecting on rules of action that could diminish the possibility of such a case from taking place.

2. Teaching the Case Study

A. Procedure

Step 1. Students are to read the article published by Polityka on October 9, 1993. Materials from the local newspapers in the Lower Silesian region where these events took place also may be useful.

The instructor should summarize the case briefly, stressing the most important characteristics of the events and explaining any confusion or misunderstanding. He/she should also formulate the main questions for organizing work on the case. Some sample questions may include: What are the main problems of managing the school presented in the case? What is the relationship, if any, between this problem and the functioning of school in a democratic way and in a democratic environment?

Step 2. In small groups, the students discuss the case study. The instructor should draw their attention to the following problems: What were the main ideas about this school and what was the history of its development?; What is the background and nature of the conflict?; Who are the parties involved in the conflict?; Who abuses democratic principles? How are they abused? Why are they abused?; What mistakes were made concerning school management?; How, on the basis of information included in the article, may one characterize the management of the school?

Step 3. The plenary discussion serves for an exchange of opinions on the above mentioned issues. It was conceived as an activity to prepare students for answering the following questions: How would my private Decalogue of the Educational Leader look?; As a leader, what action do I agree to undertake? What don't I agree to undertake?

Step 4. The students should clarify this problem in their minds. Subsequently, the instructor may begin a general discussion on the effects of rules the students have proposed for school leadership based on democratic principles.

3. Materials

Below is a summary of the article on which this case study is based. It may help in understanding the idea of the case. We recommend, however, that students read this extensive document.

The Experimental Rebellion

Dariusz Łuczak, the 32 year old leader of the authorship School of Self-Development -- ASSA in Wrocław, says that in the last three years, he was beloved as a principal by his teachers and students. Something changed, however, when he started to introduce some new arrangements. Now, there are two centers of power in the school, and some students, parents, and teachers demand that Łuczak leave his position. They accuse him of betraying the idea of the school and of committing financial embezzlement. "We don't agree with the dictatorship of one person, and we don't want to be blackmailed by a fetish of authorship." This was written in an anonymous leaflet that was distributed in the school in June.

How did this school come into existence?

ASSA emerged "in pain" from Lyceum III in Wrocław. This high school was famous for its freedom and good teaching. In the 1970s, the principal of III was Daniel Modelski, an educator known widely for his innovative attitudes and ideas about how to work with youngsters. Among his students was Dariusz Łuczak. On December 12, 1981, Modelski, then a representative of teachers' "Solidarity", proposed the authorship school. The proposal was accepted enthusiastically. At that time, it seemed as if a school that was free from traditional models would emerge any day. Martial Law delayed this possibility for nine years. In 1989, a group of fanatic advocates of educational reform established the "Society for Self-Development." Among the founders was the former principal of Lyceum III, Daniel Modelski, and his former student, Dariusz Łuczak. A year later, in an aura of enormous controversies, the "Authorship School for Self-Development" was founded. There are no grades in this school. There is no traditional mechanism for graduation. All members of this community address each other by their first names. Students plan classes by themselves. They may choose their teachers. They may be checked on their accomplishments after four years of schooling instead of one. All these things require self-control and maturity and consist of the "biggest trumps" of the school. Quickly, the school became fashionable. However, it was not free because there were some fees. In the beginning, it did not have even the authority of a public lyceum. The school district authorities looked at it cautiously -- considering as very unique a school where students may evaluate themselves and then negotiate this evaluation with a teacher.

Without formal rules for wages

In 1992, after several visits to the Ministry of Education, the school gained formal status. It operates as an "experiment." The teachers are obliged to teach to the "minimal" standards of knowledge established by the Ministry of Education. At the beginning, they were afraid to work at this school. But, the popularity of the school and 30% higher wages convinced the teachers. Everybody may negotiate their salary during individual discussions with the principal; there are no formal limits for wages. This "idyllic" situation lasted until June, 1993. About this time, it appeared that there were mutineers in the school. A spark for rebellion was the principal's decision to dismiss 24 of the 62 teachers. Dariusz Łuczak said that he hired more teachers than were necessary for the 850 students, and, furthermore, some of them did not prove themselves equal to the task. Their teaching methods were not attractive to the students, and the students decide on the usefulness of the teacher. The dismissals were meant to be an attempt to crystallize the team. According to Łuczak, the fired teachers started complaining. They rallied the support of 30 rather poor students and their parents. Łuczak's opponents argued that the problem existed earlier, only it was hidden. They said that a school without entrance exams became an asylum for idlers who took advantage of the absence of any discipline. The very idea of self-education had become perverted. Both students and teachers are demoralized. An effect was the rebellion of a few hundred people who defended the fired teachers. "Each morning a few hundred students enter the school. There is no plan for activity so they play some ping-pong and go back home." This, according to Kazimierz Szubert -- plenipotentiary of the principal adversaries, describes a day in the school. "Some kids like it, but more and more others want to start learning because they pay a fee of 700,000 złotys every month. Discrimination against rebelling teachers reigns; terror rules." Others explained that the school was attempting to transform a reproductive teaching system to a creative one. "We have an opportunity to try by ourselves, and we may make mistakes. Nothing forces us to attend this school. Those who are disappointed are free to leave. The biggest noise is produced by the poorest students. They use strange arguments without any proof whatsoever."

"I am the authority."

One of the arguments is the accusation of promoting private interests. Łuczak was accused of single-handedly turning a "social" lyceum into a "private" school. He says: "I am the authority!" and ignores the democratic bodies of the ASSA. Szubert, the lawyer, explains that the Society for Self-Development did not undertake any activity but funding a school, and now it collects money from it. The board is captured by the principal's praetorian. The monthly school budget is about 650 million złotys, including about 300 million from a ministerial subsidy. "Gang!" "Clique!" These were words screamed during the June 11 meeting of people opposed to the school's experimental nature. At this meeting, some teachers called Łuczak a "thief" and a "mocker." The principal asked for proof and corrected their claims by noting that the income from tuition fees and subsidies is smaller, i.e. an average of 550 million per month. The school budget is not kept secret in spite of antagonists accusations. A financial report for last year was accepted by the School Council. Members of the Board are working for free. There are not 50 million for the representative's fund.

The end of freedom

On June 11, after the stormy meeting with the principal, 56 adversaries declared their intention to join the Society for Self-Development. Prior to this moment, the Society consisted of 16 people who supported the principal of ASSA. According to Łuczak's antagonists, at a June 12 general meeting of the organization called by the principal, rules for membership were passed retroactively that prevented the opposition from joining the Society. However, the antagonists arranged their own meeting, and they appointed a new board that dismissed Łuczak. The newly appointed authority awaits registration by the court. Łuczak says the members of the new board are "usurpers." As an effect of personal attacks by people who do not like his formula for education, he fears that the idea of ASSA may fall apart. If his antagonists win, it will be the end of school freedom, rallies, camps, excursions, and campfires. This is just what his antagonists want to happen, though three years ago they identified themselves with this very idea. Today, they say that it was "copied from a French journal." The opposition argues that the present ASSA is a caricature of school; that the old ideal was betrayed by Łuczak, and youngsters have no incentives to work anymore. Camps, rallies, and campfires have replaced teaching and learning, not improved them. Łuczak thinks that the school faced problems from the very beginning. At first of legal and financial natures, and now this conflict . . .

SYMPOSIUM

"The School in Democratic Society'

1. The Goal of the Symposium

The goal of this activity is to summarize the students' knowledge and experiences gained from the course. The problem of the symposium is organized around the place and desirable profile of the school in democratic society.

In addition, the symposium provides an opportunity for preparation and public presentation of a paper for discussion and debate when defending one's personal points and opinions.

2. Teaching for the Symposium

A. Organization of the Symposium

Considering the fact that students need time to prepare their papers, the symposium can take place no earlier than two to three weeks after completion of the previous topic. This situation gives the instructor the advantage of time for organizing the event. He/she must find proper rooms (there may be a need for few of them for parallel sessions) and invite guests, including colleagues who will chair the sessions. Other students can participate in the symposium as an audience. One should be aware of technical needs (e.g., projection screen, blackboards, and microphones). If possible, students' papers should be copied in advance. Nevertheless, they should be published after the conclusion of the symposium.

After students make their final decisions on their paper topics, the symposium program should be prepared. The following questions frame but a few of the instructor's possible concerns: What sessions will take place?; What will be the order of paper presentations?; What are the programs for the opening and closing plenary sessions?

B. Preparation of the Papers

Step 1. During the development of the papers, the instructor should be prepared for individual work with the students. At the beginning of this work, the following guidelines should be established:

- time of presentation;
- format (introduction, elaboration, conclusions, summary, references);
- number of authors (no more than 3); and
- time-table for completing papers:
    - * date for formulation of the problem;
    - * date for outline;
    - * date for draft;
    - * date for final version (in a written, copy ready form).

Step 2. Formulation of the problem is a key to the success of the students' efforts. The instructor should check to see if the students were able to formulate and rationalize precisely a problem they wanted to investigate. The students should be discouraged from tackling problems too complex, but, at the same time, they should be encouraged to search for original answers for their chosen problem.

Step 3. The outline should include how the problem will be developed. At this stage, the problem can still be modified. The instructor should be concerned with the match of the outline to the actual problem. The students should define precisely the "departure" and "arrival" points: What point do they want to carry?; What recommendation do they wish to make? The outline should also include references.

Step 4. The preliminary version of the paper should be evaluated by the instructor from the point of view of its internal consistency and clarity. At this time, the formal requirements, including time limits, should be considered. In the case of a paper with more than one author, it may be appropriate to discuss the arrangements for their presentation (e.g., Who is the speaker?; What are the roles of the other authors?).

Step 5. The students alone take final responsibility for their papers. They will be evaluated by other participants. The instructor may request that the class meet for this purpose after the symposium.

3. Materials

Here are some suggested sample problems for student consideration:

- "Teacher-democrat": Who is he?
- To whom does the school belong?
- Elites in the school: Yes or no?
- Are teachers afraid of parents?
- "Freedom" and "slavery" in the school
- Can the school be a "model" for democracy?
- Equality in the school: What is it?
- "May you teach other people's children!": Does it pay to be a teacher?